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VARIANT READINGS OF THE QUR'AN:

A CRITICAL STUDY OF THEIR.
HISTORICAL AND LINGUISTIC ORIGINS

Aliman 'Ali al Imam

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VARIANT READINGS OF THE QUR'AN:

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Ahmad 'Alī al Imām

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Dedication

To the soul of my beloved father, the man who filled me with his devotion to the Qur'an and enlightened me with his wisdom and wide hnowledge in spreading the message of the Qur'an, the ever-preserved word of God:

We have, without doubt, Sent down the Message, And We will assuredly Guard it Jrom corruption). Qur'an 16:9

The death of my father was a great loss to me, as in his precious and spiritual company I lived the most beautiful days of my life. Indeed to me he was a father, a shaykh, an excellent example for me to follow, a friend and

ولي فيه أستاذ ولي فيه مرشد ولي فيه قطب ذو اتصال ولي ولي

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ABBREVIATIONS

Abū 'Ubayd, Faḍā'il al Qur'ān—Abū 'Ubayd, Faḍā'il al Qur'ān wa Ma'ālimuh wa Ādābuh.

Al Awā'il—al 'Askarī, Al Awā'il.

Al Baḥr al Muḥīṭ—Abū Ḥayyān, Tafsīr al Baḥr al Muḥīṭ.

Bayān—al Khū'i, Al Bayān fī Tafsīr al Qur'ān.

Al Bidāyah wa al Nihāyah—Ibn Kathūr, Al Bidāyah wa al Nihāyah fī al Tārīkh.

Al Budūr al Zāhirah—al Qādī, Al Budūr al Zāhirah fī al Qirā'āt al 'Ashr al Mutawātirah min Ṭarīqay al Shāṭibiyyah wa al Durrī.

Bukhārī—al Bukhārī, Al Jāmi' al Şaḥīḥ or Saḥīḥ al Bukhārī.

Bulūgh al Amānī—al Bannā, Bulūgh al Amānī min Asrār al Fatḥ al Rabbānī. Burhān—al Zarkashī, Al Burhān fī 'Ulūm al Qur'ān.

Concluding Essay—Jeffery, Concluding Essay on the Materials for the History of the Text of the Qur'ān.

Dayf, Al 'Asr al Jāhilī—Dayf, Tārīkh al Adab al 'Arabī: Al 'Aṣr al Jāhilī.

Dhawq al Ḥalāwah—al Ghamarī, Dhawq al Ḥalāwah bi Bayān Imtinā' Naskh al Tilāwah.

Dirāsāt fī Tārīkh al Khaṭṭ al 'Arabī—al Munajjid, Dirāsāt fī Tārīkh al Khaṭṭ al 'Arabī mundh Bidāyatih ilā Nihāyat al 'Aṣr al Umawī.

E.I.', E.I.2—Encyclopaedia of Islam, 1st and 2nd editions.

Fatāwā—Ibn Taymiyyah, Majmūʻ Fatāwā Shaykh al Islām Ibn Taymiyyah.

Fatḥ al Bārī—Ibn Ḥajar al 'Asqalānī, Fatḥ al Bārī bi Sharḥ Ṣahīḥ al Bukhārī. Al Fihrist—al Nadīm, Kitāb al Fihrist.

Fück, al 'Arabiyyah—Fück, Al 'Arabiyyah Dirāsāt fī al Lahajāt wa al Asālīb. Funūn al Afnān—Ibn al Jawzī, Funūn al Afnān fī 'Uyūn 'Ulūm al Our'ān.

Gharā'ib al Qur'ān—al Nīsābūrī, Tafsīr Gharā'ib al Qur'ān wa Raghā'ib al Furgān.

Ghāyat al Nihāyah—Ibn al Jazarī, Ghāyat al Nihāyah fī Ṭabaqāt al Qurrā' Dhawī al Dirāyah.

Ghayth al Naf'—al Şafāqisī, Ghayth al Naf' fī al Qirā'āt al Sab'.

Al Hākim—al Ḥākim, Al Mustadrak 'alā al Ṣaḥīḥayn.

Ibānah-al Qaysī, Al Ibānah 'an Ma'āni al Qirā'āt.

Īḍāḥ—Ibn al Anbārī, Kitāb Īḍāḥ al Waqf wa-al Ibtidā' fī Kitāb Allāh 'Azza wa Jall.

Ibn Kathīr, Tafsīr—Ibn Kathīr, Tafsīr al Qur'ān al 'Azīm.

ABBREVIATIONS

Ibrāz al Ma'ānī—Abū Shāmah, Ibrāz al Ma'ānī min Hirz al Amānī.

Al 'Iqd al Farīd—Ibn 'Abd Rabbih, Al 'Iqd al Farīd.

Al Iqtirāḥ—al Suyūṭī, Al Iqtirāḥ fī Uṣūl al Naḥw.

Irshād al Sārī—al Qastallanī, Irshād al Sārī bi Sharh Şaḥīḥ al Bukhārī.

Al Isti'āb—Ibn 'Abd al Barr, Al Isti'āb fī Ma'rifat al Aṣḥāb.

Itḥāf—al Dimyāṭī, Itḥāf Fuḍalā' al Bashar bi Qirā'āt al Arba'at 'Ashar.

Itqān—al Suyūfī, Al Itqān fī 'Ulūm al Qur'ān.

Al Kalimāt al Ḥisān—al Muṭi'ī, Al Kalimāt al Ḥisān fī al Ḥurūf al Sab'ah wa Jam' al Qur'ān.

Al Kāmil—Ibn al Athīr, Al Kāmil fī al Tārīkh.

Kanz al Ma'ānī—al Ja'burī, Kanz al Ma'ānī fī Sharḥ Ḥirz al Amānī wa Wajh al Tahānī.

Kashf al Zunūn—Ḥājjī Khalīfah, Kashf al Zunūn 'an Asāmī al Kutub wa al Funūn.

Al Kashshāf—al Zamakhsharī, Al Kashshāf 'an Ḥaqā'iq Ghawāmiḍ al Tanzīl wa 'Uyūn al Aqāwīl fī Wujūh al Ta'wīl.

Kitāb al Sab'ah—Ibn Mjuāhid, Kitāb al Sab'ah fī al Qirā'āt.

Kitāb al Zīnah—al Rāzī, Kitāb al Zīnah fī al Kalimāt al Islāmiyyah al 'Arabiyyah.

Khizānat al Adab—al Khaṭīb al Baghdādī, Khizānat al Adab wa Lubb Lubāb Lisān al 'Arab.

al Kurdī, Tārīkh al Qur'ān—al Kurdī, Tārīkh al Qur'ān al Karīm wa Gharā'ib Rasmih wa Hukmih.

Lane-Lane, Madd al Qāmūs: Arabic-English Lexicon.

Lață'if, al Qasțallanı—Lață'if al Ishārāt li Funun al Qirā'āt.

Lisān al 'Arab—Ibn Manzūr, Lisān al 'Arab.

Mabānī Anon.—ed. Jeffery, Kitāb al Mabānī fī Nazm al Ma'ānī (See Jeffery, Muqaddimatān fī 'Ulūm al Qur'ān).

Ma' al Maṣāḥif—Yūsuf Ibrāhīm al Nūr, Ma' al Maṣāḥif.

Al Madhāhib al Islāmiyya fī Tafsīr al Qur'ān al Karīm—Goldziher, Al Madhāhib al Islāmiyya fī Tafsīr al Qur'ān al Karīm, translated from the German (Die Richtungen der Islamischen Koranauslegung) by 'Alī Ḥasan 'Abd al Qādir.

Madhāhib al Tafsīr al Islāmī—Goldziher, Madhāhib al Tafsīr al Islamī, translated from the German (Die Rictungen der Islamischen Korana-uslegung), by 'Abd al Ḥalīm al Najjār.

Madrasat al Kūfah—al Makhzūmī, Madrasat al Kūfah wa Manhajuhā fī Dirāsat al Lughah wa-al Naḥw.

Mafātīḥ al Ghayb—al Rāzī, Mafātīḥ al Ghayb.

Manāhil—al Zurqānī, Manāhil al 'Irfān fī 'Ulūm al Qur'ān.

Marātib al Naḥwiyyīn—al Ḥalabī, Marātib al Naḥwiyyīn.

Ma'rifat al Qurrā' al Kibār—al Dhahabī, Ma'rifat al Qurrā' al Kibār 'alā al Ṭabaqāt wa al A'ṣār.

Al Maṣāḥif—Ibn Abī Dāwūd, Kitāb al Maṣāḥif.

Materials—Jeffery, Materials for the History of the Text of the Qur'an.

Miftāḥ al Sa'ādah—Ṭāshkubrī Zādah, Miftāḥ al Sa'ādah wa Miṣbāḥ al Siyādah fī Mawdū'āt al 'Ulūm.

Al Muhadhdhab—Muḥaysin, Al Muhadhdhab fī al Qirā'āt al 'Ashr wa Tawjīhuhā min Lughat al 'Arab.

Al Muḥarrar al Wajīz—Abū Shāmah, Al Murshid al Wajīz ilā 'Ulūm Tata'allaq bi al Kitāb al 'Azīz.

Al Muḥkam—al Dānī, Al Muḥkam fī Naqt al Maṣāḥif.

Al Muḥtasib—Ibn Jinnī, Al Muḥtasib fī Tabyīn Wujūh Shawādhdh al Qirā'āt wa al Ĭḍāḥ 'anhā.

Mu'jam mā Ista'jam—al Bakrī, Mu'jam mā Ista'jam min Asmā' al Bilād wa al Mawāḍi'.

Mukhtaşar—Ibn Khālawayh, Al Mukhtaşar fī Shawādah al Qirā'āt.

Munjid-Ibn al Jazarī, Munjid al Muqri'īn wa Murshid al Ṭālibīn.

Muqaddimatān—ed. Jeffery, Muqaddimatān fī 'Ulūm al Qur'ān.

Al Muqni'—al Dānī, Al Muqni' fī Rasm Maṣāḥif al Amṣār.

Mushkil Āthār—al Taḥāwī, Mushkil Āthār.

Musnad—Ibn Hanbal, Al Musnad.

Al Muzhir—al Suyūtī, Al Muzhir fī al Lughah wa Anwā'iha.

Al Naqd al Taḥlīlī—al Ghamrāwī, Al Naqd al Taḥlīlī li Kitāb fī al Adab al Jāhilī.

al Nasā'ī-al Nasa'ī, Sunan al Nasā'ī, al Mujtabā.

Nashr-Ibn al Jazarī, Al Nashr fī al Qirā'āt al 'Ashr.

Al Naskh fī al Qur'ān al Karīm—Abū Zayd: Al Naskh fī al Qur'ān al Karīm: Dirāsah Tashrī'iyyah Tārīkhiyyah Naqdiyyah.

Nihāyah—Ibn al Athīr, Al Nihāyah fī Gharīb al Ḥadith wa al Athar.

Nukat al Intişār—Ibn al Bāqillāni, Nukat al Intişār li Naql Maṣāḥif al Amṣār. Oāmūs—al Fayrūzābādī, Al Oāmūs al Muhīt.

Al Qirā'āt al Mashhūrah—Ibn Ḥazm, Al Qirā'āt al Mashhūrah fī al Amṣār al Ātiyah Majī' al Tawātur.

Qurțubī—al Qurtubī, Al Jāmi' li Aḥkām al Qur'ān.

Al Rawḍ al Unuf—al Suhaylī, Al Rawḍ al Unuf fī Sharḥ al Sīrah al Nabawiyyah li Ibn Hishām.

Al Riyāḍ al Mustaṭābah—al 'Āmirī, Al Riyāḍ al Mustaṭābah fī Jumlat Man Rawā fī al Ṣaḥīḥayn min al Ṣaḥābah.

Rūḥ al Ma'ānī—al Alūsī, Rūḥ al Ma'ānī fī Tafsīr al Qur'ān al 'Azīm wa al Sab' al Mathānī.

Al Ṣāḥibī—Ibn Zakariyyā, Al Ṣāḥibī.

Sharh al Sunnah—al Baghawī, Sharh al Sunnah.

al Shifā—al Qāḍī 'Iyād, Al Shifā' bi Ta'rīf Ḥuqūq al Muṣṭafā.

Sīrat Ibn Hishām—Ibn Hishām, Al Sīrah al Nabawiyyah.

Sīrat Ibn Isḥāq—Ibn Isḥāq, Sīrat Ibn Isḥāq.

Şubḥ al A'shā—al Qalqashandī, Şubḥ al A'shā fī Şinā'at al Inshā.

Sunan Abī Dāwūd—Abū Dāwūd al Sijistānī, Sunan Abī Dāwūd.

Sunan Ibn Mājah—Ibn Mājah, Sunan Ibn Mājah.

Țabaqāt al Ḥuffāz—al Suyūṭī, Ṭabaqāt al Ḥuffāz.

Țabari, Tafsīr—al Țabari, Jāmi' al Bayān 'an Ta'wīl al Qur'ān.

Tadhkirat al Ḥuffāz—al Dhahabī, Tadhkirat al Ḥuffāz.

Tafsīr al Khams Mi'at Āyah—Muqāṭil, Tafsīr al Khams Mi'at Āyah min al Qur'ān fī al Amr wa al Nahy wa al Ḥalāl wa al Ḥarām.

Tafsīr al Manār—Riḍā, Tafsīr al Qur'ān al Ḥakīm.

Tafsīr al Marāghī, Tafsīr al Marāghī.

Tafsīr al Qummī—al Qummī, Tafsīr al Qummī.

Tārīkh al Tabarī—al Tabarī, Tārīkh al Rusul wa al Mulūk.

Tārīkh al Ya'qūbī, al Ya'qūbī, Tārīkh al Ya'qūbī.

Tartīb al Musnad—al Bannā, Al Fatḥ al Rabbānī li Tartīb Musnad Aḥmad Ibn Ḥanbal al Shaybānī.

Al Taṭawwur al Naḥwī—Bergstraesser, Al Taṭawwur al Naḥwī li al Lughah al 'Arabiyyah.

Ta'wīl—Ibn Qutaybah, Ta'wīl Mushkil al Qur'ān.

Thimār al Qulūb—al Tha'ālibī, Thimār al Qulūb fī al Muḍāf wa al Manṣūb.

Al Tamhīd—Ibn al Bāqillānī, Al Tamhīd fi al Radd 'alā al Mu'aṭṭilah wa al Rāfiḍah wa al Khawārij wa al Mu'tazilah.

Al Tibyān—al Nawawī, Al Tibyān fī Ādāb Ḥamalat al Qur'ān.

al Ţūsī, al Tibyān—al Ṭūsī, Al Tibyān fī Tafsīr al Qur'ān.

al Wāqidī, Maghāzī—al Wāqidī, Kitāb al Maghāzī.

FOREWORD

This book has multiple significance and is related to diverse fields of interest. Therefore, its subject occupies a distinctive place in the field of Qur'anic studies in particular, and Islamic studies in general. Moreover, this is a subject that, at times transcends the field of essential or fundamental Islamic studies and moves into the sphere of subjects like language, rhetoric, and logic.

There are a number of possible approaches to deal with this subject, and it is essential to distinguish between them and then to choose the best. For example, one may study the relationship between the Quran and the Sunnah of the Prophet; the essential differences between the Book and the Sunnah; the Arabic language and its capacity for expressing, with power, divine revelation; the extent to which the human tongue is capable of dealing with a language that served as a conduit for the Divine, in terms of the ease or difficulty of pronunciation or understanding; or its capacity to deal with, and to comprehend, the changes that inevitably occur in the organization, style, expressiveness, and inimitability of languages.

Some of the most important issues to be dealt with in this field have come to us through hadith narrations of varying degrees of authenticity (or the lack thereof), particularly those concerning the plurality of Qur'anic recitations, the ways that these were passed down, and the relative renown of each. Witness, for example, the hadith concerning the "seven letters" and the many different narrations in its support. Thus, it is fitting that our approach to this book be the study of the relationship between the Blessed Book and the Sunnah of the Prophet. In doing so, I hope that I may provide a framework from which to read and understand this book appropriately.

Imam Shafi'i defined the relationship between the Book and the Sunnah in a very precise manner, though most scholars, owing to their pre-occupation with jurisprudence, have not paid attention to the subtleties in his definition. Thus, most interpretations of Imam Shafi'i's definition of that relationship are less than satisfactory. In his work on jurisprudence, Al Risalāh, Imam Shafi'i explained the place of the Sunnah in terms of eluci-

dation, or *bayan*. As such, the Sunnah represents one form among many that brings lucidity to the Qur'an. At times, the Qur'an is perfectly clear, immediately apparent, and requires no further elucidation. At other times, the meaning of its verses is explained by other verses, or the meaning is interpreted over the course of time. In most instances, however, the meaning is clarified by means of the Sunnah, either by word or in deed. This is because the basic function of the Sunnah is to elucidate. Furthermore, the elucidator is subservient to the elucidated which, in this case, equates with the text of the Qur'an.

Imam Shafi'i affirmed that the Qur'anic text occupies the highest possible place and that nothing can compare or compete with it (in terms of its significance) other than something that is equal to it (i.e., another verse from the Qur'an). He then went on to generate a number of particular instances from this principle, although owing to their intricacies, many of these, too, were misunderstood. Then, given his understanding of the relationship, and his limiting the concept of "text" or naṣṣ to the Qur'an alone, he relegated the Sunnah, by considering it the Qur'an's elucidator, to second place. Therefore, when the Sunnah is subsequent to the Qur'an, following it in rank, it will not be capable of abrogating the verses of the Qur'an because the Qur'an is principal to it. In other words, the Sunnah cannot abrogate the Qur'an because it, the Sunnah, is not the Qur'an's equal. Rather, the Sunnah is subservient to the Qur'an and may not rise to a place higher than to elucidate the Qur'an.

In this way, Imam Shafi'i solidified the relationship between the Qur'an and the Sunnah. The Qur'an is principal to the Sunnah, and serves to verify it; whereas the Sunnah will not go beyond the Qur'an, but revolves about its axis, and derives its own legitimacy from it. It is not the place of the elucidator, then, to abrogate the elucidated, do away with it, damage it, pass over it, add to it, subtract from it, or do anything other than elucidate it. The elucidator elucidates and nothing more.

Imam Shafi'i's defense of the Sunnah was, in every case, to maintain its status as a bayan or an elucidator. Most of the challenges he faced came from people whose intention was to disengage entirely the Sunnah from the Qur'an by stirring up issues pertaining to authenticity, like tawatur, and meaning, like qat' and zann, so as to drive a wedge between the text of the Qur'an and its elucidation through the Sunnah of the Prophet. In his works, like Al Risālah, Mukhtalif al Ḥadīth, and Jamā' al 'Ilm, Imam Shafi'i focussed on this objective. The Qur'an's sovereignty and its primacy were very clear in his mind. It was for this reason that, when the Imam turned to jurisprudence, he placed the Sunnah in a subservient role. Thus,

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he considered the Sunnah the second source for legislation in cases where there was no apparent teaching from the Qur'an. In cases where such a teaching existed, and the Sunnah acted to elucidate the Qur'an, there was no need for discussion of rank, or to relegate the Sunnah to second place, or third. So the position adopted by Imam Shafi'i on the matter was intended to cement the foundation of the Sunnah as elucidation.

When we come to the issue at hand, or what the Sunnah has brought to us concerning variant Qur'anic recitations, and in particular the matter of the Qur'an's having been "revealed in seven letters," we may begin to discuss these things from the perspective outlined above. In this manner, we may hope, Allah willing, to reach something that we can agree on.

As the Qur'an attempts to erect a stable relationship between itself and human beings on the one hand, and between itself and the universe on the other, it is distinguished from every other sort of discourse known to humans by the uniqueness of its syntax and composition. It is also distinguished by the ways in which it was communicated to humans. The Qur'an was revealed to an unlettered Prophet who realized that the only means he possessed for its preservation was his memory or his own powers of retention. Thus, you see him receiving the text and then exerting himself to the utmost so as not to lose even a single letter or syllable. And this is despite the repeated assurances of the Almighty that He will preserve the message. and have it recited to the Prophet (by the angel Jibril [Gabriel]) so that he will remember it, and that Allah will posit the message in the Prophet's heart and preserve it there, and then explain it to him. The only responsibility the Prophet had in the matter was to give himself wholly to receiving and accepting the message. Thereafter, the Divine Revealer Himself would be responsible for collecting and ordering the Qur'an, for having it recited to the Prophet, and for explaining everything about it. The Prophet had only to receive the message. However, after the Our'an was received he had to implement its principles and provide a living example of its teachings so as to fully elucidate its meanings.

Indeed, there is a major difference between writing down what is dictated and reciting what is revealed. Dictation may be received while the memory is at rest; all that someone is concerned with is the faithful transfer between what is heard and what is written. However, when the function is to memorize by heart everything that is heard, so as to carry the Divine message to others by means of recitation and then to have it written down, that is clearly an entirely different matter! Under such circumstances, the senses, the heart, the conscious self, the mind, and the memory are in a state of interaction with the text, and in a state of extreme exer-

tion. Under these circumstances, the message very nearly becomes a part of the listener. In this manner, the instant that the Prophet hears the revelation, the battle for control of the message is immediately settled. Thereafter, the functions of recitation, delivery, and transcribing are facilitated. Likewise, it becomes easier to direct the discourse to others. In this manner, at the moment of revelation, the dialectic of text and human intellect is also settled.

In addition, the oral transmission of the Message affords those who hear it with the opportunity to familiarize their tongues with it, not to mention their hearts and minds. Then, within the framework of oral transmission and narration, the recited text will sometimes allow for the plurality of recitations. Certain tribes, for example, had become accustomed to pronouncing the "a" equivalent shaded toward the "e" equivalent, while other tribes were pronouncing doubled consonants singly, and singled consonants doubly, without changing the meaning. The oral environment surrounding the text lended itself to this sort of reasonable latitude and promoted a sense of congeniality and familiarity which lead to the sharing of common ground between the text and those who accepted it. At the same time, the text retained its primacy over the language in which it had been revealed, both in general and in terms of its various dialects. In this way, the text made the language its mouthpiece, and prepared it for service in promoting understanding of the text and its subsequent interpretation. It is from this vantage point that we may view the issue of the Qur'an's "facilitation" by the Almighty, as articulated in the verse:

We made this Qur'an easy to bear in mind; who, then, is willing to take it to heart? (54:17)

Later, came the stage of recorded entry and composition by way of preparation for the emergence of the text and its transition from oral transmission to book form, circulated and standardized. Thus began a new stage of interaction with the text—between the text and humankind on the one hand, and the text and historical reality on the other. Thus, the text of the Qur'an became capable of encompassing the entire universe in a comprehensive and absolute manner. To establish such an inimitable relationship between its letters and the universe, the Qur'an's revelation took twenty-three years to complete. This was followed by a period of oral transmission, and then a period of collecting what was kept and memorized in the hearts of people and recording it in writing until the Qur'an appeared in the form of a book to be read by people and circulated among them until it came to settle in their hearts and minds.

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The Qur'an set in motion a process of change that very few are able to comprehend. This was predicated on the concept I call "the integrating of the two readings," i.e., the reading of the text and the reading of the real existential. And this is what constituted the methodology for the true recitation of the Qur'an. It is very difficult for readers to discover the meanings of the Qur'an within a framework in which precedence is given to a single recitation, or to a single dimension, like the historical dimension with its emphasis on the occasions of revelation, or the legal dimension, and so on. In fact, there is no end to the dimensions of the Qur'an, and there is no way to begin to understand these without having an appreciation for the subtle affinities between the Qur'an and humankind, and between the Qur'an and the universe. The first recipient of the Qur'an, the Prophet, understood this matter completely, and employed this comprehensive methodology in the process of delivering the Qur'an to the Ummah so that they, in turn, would be able to carry it to all of humankind.

Thus, the Prophet reviewed with the angel Jibril whatever was revealed to him. Then, once a year, they would review all that had been revealed to date. This continued every year until the year of the Prophet's death, during which they reviewed the entire revelation twice. By means of these reviews, they made completely certain that all components of the Qur'an were right, that all of the letters in all of the words were correct, that the order of words in the verses was correct, that the verses were placed correctly in the right chapters, that the chapters were in the right order, and that the Qur'an was placed correctly in regard to humankind and the universe. The Qur'an is the guide that does not stray or err, does not ignore or overlook. It teaches tawhīd to those who are made khulafā' over the earth, and purifies them so that they may be able to assume their responsibilities, be successful in the test of life, and achieve the goal of edifying or making the earth a better place. As such, the Qur'an is the book of the universe, and by means of it one may "read" the universe, interpret it, and clarify the dimensions essential to a productive life in it. Likewise, the universe clarifies, elucidates, and interprets the Qur'an. In the universe there are signs for those who believe, and in the Our'an there are signs for those who will consider them.

So, it was within the framework of facilitating the Qur'an for remembrance in the period of oral transmission that the issue of multiple readings arose. This occurred even before the revelation was completed, before the final review by the Prophet and Jibril, and before the Prophet presented the final compilation after rearranging the order of the Book at the direction of the Almighty. Within the same framework, too, the Prophet discouraged

his Companions from writing anything along with the Qur'an. The reason for this discouragement is not as many have supposed, i.e., to prevent the contamination of the Qur'an's verses with outside material, because the Arabs of those days were all too able to distinguish between the rhetoric of the Qur'an and that of anything else. Rather, the point in doing so was to give the Ummah an opportunity to interact with the Qur'an exclusively, and to allow it to work on their hearts and minds so that everything they encountered in their lives would be secondary to the Qur'an. Moreover, within the framework of the Almighty's pledge to preserve the Qur'an and protect it, He endowed it with the sort of rhetoric and eloquence that was clearly beyond the ability of humans to produce.

In the same vein, the Qur'an was made primary to the Arabic language, and never gave Arabic the opportunity to assume primacy over it. There is a great difference between using the Arabic language to understand the syntax used in the Qur'an, and the meanings of its vocabulary to assist in hermeneutics and assigning primacy to the Arabic language over the Qur'an, or attempting to make the Qur'an subordinate to the language. It is unacceptable to say that it is possible to exchange a word for its synonym, or one expression for another way of saying the same thing, even if one is convinced that the meaning is exactly the same as intended by the Almighty. This is because the word used in the Qur'an is of Divine origin and the word supposed to be synonymous with it is of human origin. What a great difference there is between the human and the Divine!

The Arabs preserved their poetry by means of its meter and rhyme. Furthermore, every Arab was able to detect in an instant any sort of error that may occur in that poetry. For example, the meter may be broken, the rhyme incorrect, the form mistaken, or the feet mismatched. The Qur'an goes beyond Arabic poetry and prose in its syntax and style. This is what constitutes the internal safeguard of the Qur'an and the guarantee that no errors will occur in its text. This is why the Qur'anic scholar, al Zamulkani, wrote:

The inimitability of Qur'an goes back to the particular way it was composed, not to the composition itself. Its vocabulary is balanced in terms of its syntax and etymology. And its constructs impart the most sublime meanings.

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Ibn Aţīyah wrote:

The correct opinion and the one held by the majority of scholars in regard to the inimitability of the Qur'an is that it is due to the Qur'an's syntax and its veracity. This is because the Almighty's knowledge encompasses everything, and His knowledge encompasses all forms of discourse. Thus, in arranging the wording of the Qur'an, the Almighty knew exactly which word was best suited to follow the one before it, and which word best yielded the intended meaning. The Book of Allah is such that if a word were removed from it, and then the entire Arabic lexicon were searched for a better word, it would never be found.

In what follows I shall quote from the *tafsīr* of Fakhr al Dīn al Rāzī in which he relates an interesting account of a discussion concerning the "irregular recitations."

Al Wāḥīdī narrated that in the Qur'anic recension by 'Abd Allah, concerning the verse "and if You forgive them, then truly You are mighty and wise" (5:118):

I heard my Shaykh and my father, may Allah show him mercy, say "'mighty and wise' in this verse, was better than 'forgiving and mercy-giving' because the Almighty's being forgiving and mercy-giving correlates to the state that brings about His forgiveness and mercy for all those in need of it. Might and wisdom, however, do not correlate to forgiveness. Allah's might implies that if He is truly mighty, and far above concern with normal considerations as to what people really deserve when He decides to forgive, then His kindness is greater than if He is described as forgiving and mercy-giving, descriptions which lead naturally to forgiveness and mercy. Thus, his interpretation, may Allah show him mercy, was to say: 'He is the mightiest of all, and still His wisdom mandates mercy.' This is perfection at its greatest."

Others have opined that if the verse had read: "and if You forgive them, then truly You are the forgiving and the mercy-giving," this would have imparted the meaning that He was going to intercede for them. But, when the verse read: "then truly You are mighty and wise," the meaning was clear that he (the speaker represented in the verse) meant to leave the matter entirely to the Almighty, and chose not to have anything to do with it at all.

The author of Al Durr al Maṣūn fī 'Ulūm al Kitāb al Maknūn repeated what was narrated concerning the ending of the verse mentioned above in the recension of 'Abd Allah ibn Mas'ūd, i.e., "then truly You are the Forgiving, the Mercy-giving." Commenting on the verse "and if You forgive them, then truly You are mighty and wise," he wrote:

Similar examples (of this sort of rhetoric) have already been mentioned. In the popular recitations and the recension in peoples' hands, it reads: "mighty and wise," whereas in the recension of 'Abd Allah ibn Mas'ūd it reads: "forgiving and mercy-giving." Certain people with no understanding of the Arabic language have trifled with this verse saving: "The most suitable version is the one in Ibn Mas'ūd's recension." Evidently, this person was unaware that the meaning is linked to the two conditions (preceding the last part of the verse). This is explained by what Abū Bakr al Anbārī wrote when he narrated this [irregular] recitation on the authority of certain critics: "Whenever the meaning is construed in the way that this critic has reported, the meaning loses vitality. This is because he attempts to limit 'the forgiving and mercy-giving' to the second condition only; such that it has nothing to do with the first condition. In fact, it is well known that the meaning is connected to both conditions, the first as well as the second. This is how Allah revealed the verse, and this is the consensus recitation of all Muslims. The summary of the verse. then, is as follows: If you punish them, then You are mighty and wise, and if Your forgive them, then You are mighty and wise, in both cases, whether in punishment or in forgiveness. Thus, it is as if 'mighty and wise' is more fitting in this place because of its generality, and because it combines both conditions. On the other hand, 'forgiving and mercy-giving' is clearly unsuitable as a carrier of the general meaning carried by 'mighty and wise.'"

To my way of thinking, Al Anbārī's comments are subtle indeed. Clearly, he does not mean, when he writes, "it is well known that the meaning is connected to both conditions" that the connection is made by having the last part of the verse, i.e., "mighty and wise" act in the grammatical sense as the jawāb al shart (apodosis) to both conditions. Clearly, this is contrary to the grammatical rules of the Arabic language because, grammatically speaking, the first condition (i.e., "If You punish them") already has its answer (i.e., "then they are Your servants"). In grammatical terms, this is the anwer corresponding to the first condition in the verse. A servant is subject to his master's doing with him as the master sees fit. Rather, what Al Anbārī meant was that the connection to the two condi-

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tions was a connection of meaning. The scholars have had a great deal to say in regard to this verse, but this is not the place to dwell on their discussions of the subject. Rather, I mention it only as it pertains to the matter of irregular and variant recitations of the Qur'an.

If substituting two of the Almighty's names "Forgiving" and "Mercygiving" for "Mighty" and "Wise" led to such controversy, then what of the exchange of other words, or letters, especially when they are particles of meaning, or when they effect the level of the Qur'an's eloquence, its rhetorical effectiveness, or its syntax, or its meaning?

In view of the above, it can be stated with confidence that regarding the revelation of the Qur'an "in seven letters" justification for substituting any of the Our'an's words with their synonyms is completely unacceptable. The most that can be imagined in this regard is that when the Islamic sciences were being recorded ('asr al tadwin). Muslim scholars related ahādīth and lesser narrations concerning the "irregular recitations," then authenticated and classified them as mutawātir, or āhād, or shādhdhah. they did so on the understanding that these represented the transformation of oral transmissions to the written state. Therefore, I feel that the most likely explanation for what happened during that time is that Allah granted a degree of latitude to those whose tongues were not yet accustomed to the dialect of the original revelation. These popular oral recitations were recorded as "irregular recitations" in precisely the ways that they were recited. Thereafter, subsequent generations of scholars continued to relate these narrations as ahādīth without stopping to consider that they were recording something that was never intended to be anything other than oral. Later, the orientalists attempted to erect, on the basis of these narrations, an entire edifice of hearsay and doubt in regard to the text of the Our'an and its integrity.

The importance of the present work stems from its attempt to identify the issues and reopen the door for their examination in the light of new scholarship, thereby removing doubts that have arisen. This study also draws its importance from the fact that the author is a Muslim Arab scholar whose specialization is Qur'anic studies. There are many studies on the subject in the English language, but they lack the authority of Islamic scholarship. It is well known, moreover, that the number of people pursuing Islamic studies in English increases significantly every day regardless of whether they are researchers, graduate students in Western universities, or others with an interest in the study of Islam.

It is my hope that this book will fill an important void in the current literature on Islam in English, and that it will motivate scholars to undertake more studies and research into the issues the book deals with.

It is Allah who knows our intentions and it is He who guides us to the right path!

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INTRODUCTION

From the earliest years of my life, I have been aware of the variation in reading among the *Qurrā'* of the Qur'an because of the existence of three dominant readings in Sudan—the *muṣḥaf* for one of these readings, *Al Dūrī 'an Abī 'Amr*, having been published for the first time in Sudan in 1978.

The following chapters investigate the reasons behind these variations and the origins of the qirā'āt. I have studied the nature of the seven aḥruf in which the Qur'an has been revealed and concluded that they represent seven linguistical variations, reflecting various dialects of the Arabs in ways of reciting the Qur'an. The aḥādīth that substantiate the revelation of the Qur'an in seven aḥruf are found to be sound and successive (mutawātir).

This book studies the status of the Qur'an and its oral and written history during the Prophet's lifetime, the compilation of Abū Bakr, and the further compilation of 'Uthmān which became predominant throughout the amṣār (the Islamic lands), after copies of it were dispatched and accompanied by distinguished Qurrā'. At the same time, personal manuscripts that did not correspond with the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif ceased to exist. The development of the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif is traced down to the printed maṣāḥif of our present day, with the conclusion that they represent the unaltered text of the Qur'an. I discuss various issues in a critical way, refuting the many allegations concerning the text of the Qur'an and the maṣāḥif to demonstrate its completeness and trustworthiness.

Having studied the relationship between the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif and the seven aḥruf, I have concluded that the maṣāḥif, which include what is transmitted by tawātur, accommodate either all or some of the aḥruf that correspond with the orthography of the 'Uthmanic maṣāḥif.

I have investigated the question of the language of the Qur'an in ancient sources as well as in modern linguistical studies and believe that the text of the Qur'an reflects the influence of various dialects of the Arabs. The scholars disagreed in identifying the most fluent dialects of the

Arabs according to their criteria for fluency. I have attempted to distinguish between *lughah* and *lahjah* in ancient sources and modern studies.

Indeed, the language of the Qur'an represents the common spoken literary language of the Arabs, which is based on all their dialects, with a predominance of Qurayshī features.

The origins of the qirā'āt date back to the teaching of the Prophet, although variations in readings are noticed only after the Hijrah in Madīnah and resulted in order to facilitate the reading of the Qur'an among the various Arab tribes that had entered Islam. In this respect, I found that whenever the Companions differed in reading among themselves, they supported their reading by referring it to the teachings of the Prophet. This method continued into the following generation. The book studies the conditions for the accepted readings along with their development. The readings that satisfy the conditions for an accepted reading and those that lack one or more of the conditions are studied, together with the classes of readings.

The forebears of the *qirā'āt* and the effect of Ibn Mujāhid's *Al Sab'ah* on the following generation are discussed, together with a survey of books composed on the subject of the *qirā'āt*.

The $ikhtiy\bar{a}r$ in reading among the qualified $Qurr\bar{a}'$ of the Qur'an is governed by the conditions for accepted readings. Thus, the $Qurr\bar{a}'$ did not have a free hand in their selection, and the theory of reading the Qur'an in accordance with the meaning is shown to be groundless.

The orthography of the *maṣaḥif* is intended to preserve the soundly transmitted and authentic reading, never to initiate or create a reading. Because certain accepted readings are objected to by some philologists and grammarians, some examples are studied. I conclude that they are sound and accepted readings because of their sound transmission, fluency, and correspondence with various Arab dialects.

In addition, the study emphasizes that there are no grammatical or orthographical errors in the 'Uthmānic maṣaḥif. And moreover, the sound, accepted readings, although differing in meaning, never contradict each other.

In the conclusion, I briefly review the main issues covered in the seven chapters of this book.

In the present study I have relied on various standard books in manuscript and printed form on $qir\bar{a}'\bar{a}t$ and the sciences of the Qur'an ('ulūm al Qur'ān), $tafs\bar{u}r$, hadith, history, grammar, and Arabic studies.

In the qirā'āt and the sciences of the Qur'an, I have mainly benefited from Abū 'Ubaydah's Faḍā'il al Qur'ān; Ibn Mujāhid's Kitāb al Sab'ah; al Dānī's Al Taysīr fī al Qirā'āt al Sab', Al Muqni' fī Rasm Maṣāḥif

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al Amṣār, and Al Muḥkam fī Naqt al Maṣāḥif; Ibn al Bāqillānī's Nukat al Intiṣār; Makkī Ibn Abī Ṭālib al Qaysī's Al Ibānah 'an Ma'ānī al Qirā'āt and Al Kashf 'an Wujūh al Qirā'āt al Sab'; Ibn al Jazarī's Al Nashr and Munjid al Muqri'īn; al Qasṭallānī's Laṭa'if al Ishārāt; al Zarkashī's Al Burhān; and al Suyūṭī's al Itqān. In fact, they are used most in discussions about the meaning of the seven aḥruf and their relation to the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif, the personal manuscripts, and their end, which formed the origins of qirā'āt.

In the field of *tafsīr*, we have used the books of al Ṭabarī, al Zamakhsharī, al Rāzī, al Qurṭubī, Abū Ḥayyān, and Ibn Kathīr to interpret certain verses that are read in various ways and that support certain accepted readings and grammatical arguments concerning other readings.

As regards the substantiation of the revelation of the Qur'an in the seven *aḥruf*, the compilation of the Qur'an, the arrangement of surahs and verses, and the problem of *naskh*, I have benefited from the standard books on the literature of hadith, mainly from Bukhārī, Muslim, and other canonical works, *Al Muwaṭtā'*, *Al Musnad*, and the four collections of *al Sunan*.

I have used only the authentic aḥādīth which are sound in their transmission and context. Furthermore, certain aḥādīth, although sound from the point of view of their asānīd, are not accepted, because, on the matter of the Qur'an, tawātur is always required. In the commentaries on aḥādīth, I benefited most from Ibn Ḥajar al 'Asqalānī's Fatḥ al Bārī and al Baghawī's Sharḥ al Sunnah.

In this connection, I have also used al Ṭabārī's $T\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}kh$, Ibn al Athīr's Al Kāmil, and Ibn Kathīr's Al Bidāyah, particularly in questions and issues relating to the compilation of the Qur'an.

Finally, as regards the language of the Qur'an and the question of fluency and of the most fluent Arab dialect, many primary sources are used, such as Sībawayh's Al Kitāb, Ibn Faris' Al Ṣāḥibī, Ibn Jinnī's Al Khaṣā'iṣ, and al Suyūṭi's Al Muzhir and Al Iqtirāḥ.

I have used modern studies and have consulted various books that are on different topics and were written in different languages, such as al Alūsī's Tafsīr, al Zurqānī's Manāhil al 'Irfān, and Ḥammūdah's Al Qirā'āt wa al Lahajāt; a number of works entitled Tārīkh al Qur'ān, composed by Rūstūfadūnī, al Zinjānī, al Kurdī, al Ibyārī, and Shāhīn; al Nūr's Ma' al Maṣāḥif, Nöldeke's Geschichte Des Qur'ān, and Jeffery's Materials for the History of the Text of the Qur'ān.

In fact, my primary sources were used mainly to support the views discussed with reference to certain modern works.

Although, I read many books in this field, I will refer only to those cited. The bibliography shows the books that I used.

The importance of this topic in the ancient and modern studies lies in the fact that it concerns the Qur'an, which is the main source of belief and law and the eternal word of God to the believers.

In particular, there is no work in any Western language devoted wholly to the question of *qirā'āt*, despite the great contribution made by Western scholars like Gustavus Fluegel, Otto Pretzl, G. Bergstraesser, and Arthur Jeffery in publishing texts on *qirā'āt*.

In the writings of modern Arab scholars, some like those of Ḥammūdah and al Zurqānī are very helpful, although they deal only with certain aspects of the problem or are devoted to the sciences of the Qur'an in general, rather than the qirā'āt specifically. Thus, although what has been written in the field is very extensive, as the bibliography shows, there is still a need for critical studies.

In the present work, I have attempted to study comprehensively and critically the questions relating to my limited topic of the variant readings of the Qur'an and their historical and linguistic origins. I hope this study contributes to our knowledge of the Qur'an, which still deserves a great deal of elucidation.

CHAPTER 1



REVELATION OF THE QUR'AN IN SEVEN AHRUF

From the earliest time, the text of the Qur'an has allowed several equally valid ways of recitation. Several aḥādīth, which are often quoted in support of this practice, will be discussed here to find out how and why variant readings existed and also to understand the texts' implications. The following hadith is a good indication of the existence of these various ways of recitation:

It is narrated by 'Abd Allāh Ibn 'Abbās that the Prophet (peace be upon him) said: "Jibril recited the Qur'an to me in one harf. Then I requested him (to read it in another harf) and continued asking him to recite in other ahruf till he ultimately recited it in seven ahruf...'

Various aḥādīth indicate that whenever a Companion found another Companion reciting the Qur'an in a manner different from the way he had been taught arguments and disagreements would arise. One such event took place between 'Umar Ibn al Khaṭṭāb and Hishām Ibn Ḥakīm, as illustrated in the following hadith:

It is narrated from 'Umar Ibn al Khaṭṭāb [that] he said: "I heard Hishām Ibn Ḥakīm reciting Sūrat al Furqān during the lifetime of Allah's Messenger. I listened to his recitation and noticed that he recited in several different ways which Allah's Messenger had not taught me. I was about to jump on him during his prayer but I controlled my temper. When he had completed his prayer, I put his upper garment around his neck and seized him by it and said, 'Who taught you this surah which I heard you reciting?' He said, 'Allah's Messenger taught it to me.' I said, 'You have told a lie, for Allah's

Bukhārī, 6:481-82; Muslim, 1:561; Muslim added, "Ibn Shihāb al Zuhrī said: 'It has been narrated to me that these seven aḥruf are in one meaning and do not differ concerning halāl or harām." Tabarī, Tafsīr, 1:29, and al Baghawī, Sharh al Sunnah, 1:501.

Messenger has taught it to me in a way different from yours.' So I dragged him to Allah's Messenger and said (to Allāh's Messenger), 'I heard this person reciting Sūrat al Furqān in a way which you have not taught me.' On that, Allah's Messenger said, 'Release him (O 'Umar)! Recite O Hishām!' Then he recited in the same way as I heard him reciting. Then Allah's Messenger said, 'It was revealed in this way' and added 'Recite O 'Umar.' I recited it as he had taught me. Allah's Messenger then said, 'It was revealed in this way. This Qur'an has been revealed to be recited in seven aḥruf, so recite of it whichever is easier for you.'"

It would appear from this hadith that the purpose of the revelation of the Qur'an in seven ahruf is to facilitate recitation for Muslims. In fact, the ahadith make many references to this. The following are some examples:

- 1. "The Qur'an was sent down in seven aḥruf, so recite what seems easy therefrom."
- 2. "The Prophet (peace be upon him) met Jibril and told him, 'I have been sent to an illiterate people, among them are the old woman, the aged shaykh, the servant and the female servant, and the man who has never read a book.' Then he said to him, 'O Muḥammad, the Qur'an has been revealed in seven aḥruf.""
- 3. "Verily this Qur'an has been revealed in seven aḥruf, so recite at liberty..."
- 4. "Jibril came to the Prophet (peace be upon him) and said, 'Allah has commanded you to recite to your people the Qur'an in one harf.' Upon this he said, 'I ask for Allah's pardon and forgiveness. My people are not capable of doing it...."
- 5. "Make things easy for my people" or "Make affairs easy for my people."

The revelation of the Qur'an in seven aḥruf to make it easier for the Muslims to understand is confirmed by the following verse:

And We have indeed made the Qur'an easy to understand and remember...(54:17)

Bukhārī, 6:482-83; al Ṭabarī, Tafsīr, 1:24-25. See also the argument between Ubayy Ibn Ka'b and 'Abd Allāh Ibn Mas'ūd, and between 'Amr Ibn al 'Āş and another, Fath al Bārī, 9:26.

^{3.} Muslim, 2:391.

Related by Tirmidhī, who says it is a good and sound hadith. See Şaḥīḥ al Tirmidhī, 14:63;
 al Baghawī, Sharḥ al Sunnah, 4:508; and al Ţabarī, Tafsīr, 1:35.

^{5.} Al Tabari, Tafsīr, 1:46.

^{6.} Muslim, 2:391.

^{7.} Ibid., 390.

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Many commentators point out that it was very difficult for the Arabs, who were—in most cases—an illiterate people with various pronounciations or dialects, to be ordered or even asked to abandon their own dialects and ways of recitation all at once. This was not only difficult to do but also people tried to cling strongly to their dialects.⁸

The permission to recite the Qur'an in seven ahruf was given after the Hijrah, as is clear from the following hadith:

Ubayy Ibn Ka'b reported that the Messenger of Allah (may peace be upon him) was near the watering place of Banū Ghifār when Jibril came to him and said, "Allah has commanded you to recite to your people the Qur'an in one harf." Upon this he said, "I ask from Allah pardon and forgiveness. My people are not capable of doing it." He then came for the second time and said, "Allah has commanded you that you should recite the Qur'an to your people in two aḥruf." Upon this he again said, "I seek pardon and forgiveness from Allah. My people would not be able to do so." He (Jibril) came for the third time and said, "Allah has commanded you to recite the Qur'an to your people in three aḥruf." Upon this he said, "I ask pardon and forgiveness from Allah. My people would not be able to do it." He then came to him for the fourth time and said, "Allah has commanded you to recite the Qur'an to your people in seven aḥruf, and in whichever they would recite, they would be right."

Aḍāt Banī Ghifār, which is translated as "the watering place of Banū Ghifār," is a place near Madīnah. It is attributed to the Banū Ghifār, because they lived around this tank.¹⁰

In another version, it is stated that Jibril met the Prophet near Ahjār al Mirā', "which is a place near Oubā' in the countryside around Madīnah."

This does not, however, mean that the part of the Qur'an that was revealed after the Hijrah was the only part to be recited in seven *ahruf*. This is shown by the previously mentioned argument between 'Umar and Hishām about different versions of *Sūrat al Furqān*, which was revealed in Makkah.¹³ Such arguments between the Companions were not accept-

^{8.} Suyūṭī, Itqān, 1:136; Ibn Ḥajar al 'Asqalānī, Fatḥ al Bārī, 9:22; Ibn al Jazarī, Nashr, 1:22.

^{9.} Muslim, 2:391; al Tabari, Tafsīr, 1:40.

Fath al Bārī, 9:28; al Qastallām, Laţā'if al Ishārāt, 1:35; Ṭabarī, Tafsīr, 1:36; al Bakrı, Mu'jam mā Ista'jam, 1:164.

^{11.} Related by Tirmidhi, who says: "It is good and sound hadith." See Saḥiḥ al Tirmidhi, 4:61; Aḥmad, Musnad, 5:132; Baghawi, Sharḥ al Sunnah, 4:508; Tabari, 1:35.

^{12.} See Tabari, Tafsīr, 1:35-36. Mujāhid says it is Qubā' itself. See Ibn al Atnīr, al Nihāyah, 1:203. Al Bakrī in his book Mu'jam mā Ista'jam, 1:117, was confused when he mentioned it as in Makkah. In fact, he thought Sujiyy al Sabāb was the same place as Ahjār al Mirā'.

^{13.} Al Suyūfi, *Itgān*, vol. I, 27.

able, and so the Prophet himself forbade his Companions to dispute regarding this matter and became angry whenever he found some of them disagreeing about recitation. Once he said:

Verily this Qur'an has been revealed to be recited in seven aḥruf, in every ḥarf you recite you have done so correctly. So do not argue, since this may lead to kufr.¹⁴

There are so many aḥādīth about the revelation of the Qur'an in the seven aḥruf that Abū 'Ubayd al Qāsim Ibn Sallām (224/838) considered them as mutawātir aḥādith (aḥadith related through multiple chains of transmission, i.e., successive). Despite this, Goldziher attributes to him the opinion that these aḥādīth are shādhdh and without an acceptable isnād, referring to the Alif Bā' of al Balawī. In fact, however, Abū 'Ubayd rejects only one hadith, namely, the one that refers to the seven aḥruf as being revealed in seven different meanings (see page 11). The other aḥādīth are regarded as mutawātir, and he interprets them as referring to seven dialects. In

Al Suyūṭī (911/1505) counted the names of the Companions who narrated these $ah\bar{a}d\bar{u}th$, and he found twenty. 18

This fact is supported by another hadith to the effect that 'Uthmān Ibn 'Affān asked those present at the mosque of Madīnah if any of them had ever heard the Prophet (peace be upon him) say, "The Qur'an has been revealed to be recited in seven aḥruf." In response, a huge number of them stood up and testified that they had heard this hadith. Consequently, 'Uthmān himself emphasized this hadith by stating that he testified with them.¹⁹

Since all these aḥruf were established as correct and sound, the feeling was that they were not a subject for dispute. Hence, it is forbidden to argue on this matter or to favor one ḥarf over another. The reason is that

Related by Ahmad, Musnad, 4:169-70; Tabarī, 1:44; Fath al Bārī, 9:21; Ibn Kathīr, Fadā'il al Qur'ān, 65.

^{15.} Nashr, 1:21; Itqān, 1:78. In fact, this large number of Companions who narrated these aḥādīth must have been the reason for Abū 'Ubayd's considering them as successive aḥādīth (mutawātir), since this number of people found in the generation of the Companions do not exist among the Successors. Nevertheless, it is a famous and good hadith. See al Zurqānī, Manāhil al 'Irfān, 1:132.

^{16.} Madhāhib al Tafsīr al Islāmī, 54, quoting al Balawī, Alif Bā', 1:21.

^{17.} See p. 13.

Itqān, 1:131. Suyūţī studied the work of Ibn al Jazarī and added two to the nineteen, which the latter had already collected. See Nashr, 1:21.

Nashr, 1:21. Ibn al Jazarī says this hadith is related by al Ḥāfiz Abū Ya'lā in his book al Musnad al Kabīr; Itgān, 1:131.

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all the *aḥruf* are sound and that "it has been revealed in this way."²⁰ Accordingly, everyone should recite as he has been taught.

The Meaning of Seven Aḥruf in the Aḥadīth

Each group of scholars attempted to clarify the exact meaning of the *aḥruf* mentioned in the *aḥadīth*. This chapter discusses all views given on this matter and then attempts to establish the meaning on the basis of the available evidence. First, however, the meaning of the expression "seven" must be discussed.

A group of scholars say the number "seven" mentioned in the ahadith is not intended as an exact number, but is a symbolic term meaning a considerable number less than ten. Hence, the number seven denotes numerousness in the single figures, just as seventy means numerousness in tens, and seven hundred means numerousness in hundreds. For instance, in the following Qur'anic verses:

The parable of those who spend their substance in the way of God is that of a grain of com: it grows seven ears, and each ear has a hundred grains. God gives manifold increase to whom He pleases. (2:261)

Whether you ask forgiveness or not (their sin is unforgivable): Even if you ask seventy times forgiveness, God will not forgive them. (9:80)

One hadith says: "Every (good) deed the Son of Adam does will be multiplied, a good deed receiving a tenfold to seven hundredfold reward." Ibn Ḥajar al 'Asqalānī (852/1448) related this saying from 'Iyāḍ (544/1449) and his successors. 22

However, most scholars maintained that the expression "seven" in the *aḥadith* means precisely the odd number seven that follows the number six and precedes eight in arithmetic. In this respect, we can refer to

^{20.} Bukhārī, 6:482; Fatḥ al Bārī, 9:26.

Muslim (Arabic text), 2:480; for the translation of the hadith, see Mishkāt al Maṣābīḥ, 2:417.

^{22.} Fath al Bārī, 9:23; Itqān, 1:131; al Zarkashī also attributed it to certain scholars. See Burhān, 1:212. Ibn al Jazarī says in Nashr, 1:25-26, "It is said the number seven does not mean the exact meaning. But it means here the numerousness and simplicity." See also the Encyclopaedia of Islam, 1st ed., 2:1073. Al Rāfi'ī in his book I'jāz al Qur'ān, 70; Aḥmad 'Ādil Kamāl in his book 'Ulūm al Qur'ān, 85-86; and 'Abd al Şabūr in Tārīkh al Qur'ān have chosen this opinion.

the following Qur'anic verses in which the number is meant to be the same, neither more nor less.

To it are seven gates: for each of those gates is a (special) class (of sinners) assigned. (15:44)

(Yet others) say they were seven, the dog being the eighth. (18:22)

In fact there is no reason for abandoning the exact meaning of the number seven and attempting to interpret it as a metaphorical term. Moreover, the *aḥadith* themselves make clear in various versions that the number seven is intended to be the exact number, neither more nor less. Among those versions are the following:

... and he recited it in other aḥruf till he ultimately recited it in seven aḥruf."23

... then I realized it had been ended in this number."24

The repeated asking for more *ahruf* between the Prophet and Jibril started from one *harf* to two, three, up to seven.²⁵

Thus, most scholars agree that the number is limited and confined to seven specifically. We may conclude, after this discussion, that the number seven mentioned in all versions of these aḥadith is the precise number known to the people. The majority accepted that these aḥadith indicate that the Qur'an has been revealed in seven aḥruf, but differed in explaining and identifying them, and in giving examples.

The Meaning of Aḥruf in the Arabic Language

The word *aḥruf* is the plural of *ḥarf*. It is given several meanings in the Arabic lexicons:

1. The extreme, verge, border, margin, brink, brow, side or edge of anything, as, for instance, the bank of a river or side of a ship or boat.²⁶

^{23.} Bukhārī, 6:482.

^{24.} Related by Nasa'i. See Itaan, 1:131-32.

^{25.} Muslim, 2:391.

Qāmūs, 3:130; Al Nihāyah fī Gharīb al Ḥadīth, 1:369; Lisān al 'Arab, 9:41; Lane, book 1, part II, 550.

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In this respect we can refer to the saying of Ibn 'Abbās: "People of the Book do not come to the women, except from the side (illā 'alā harf)."²⁷

The word *harf* occurs in the following Qur'anic verse with the same meaning:

There are among men some who serve God, as it were, on a verge: if good befalls them, they are, therewith, well content; but if a trial comes to them, they turn on their faces: they lose both this world and the Hereafter: that is loss for all to see! (22:11)

2. A letter of the alphabet, the letters being thus called because they are the extremities of the word and the syllable.

Harf also means the edge of a sword or the sharp stone edge of a mountain. A she-camel is described as harf if she is hard and sharp like a stone edge.²⁸

- 3. As a grammatical term, it means a particle, i.e., what is used to express a meaning and is neither a noun nor a verb.29
- Mode, manner, or way, as, for instance, in reciting the Qur'an according to seven modes or manners of reading, whence such phrases as fulān yaqra' bi ḥarf Ibn Mas'ūd (such a one reads in the manner of Ibn Mas'ūd).
- 5. A dialect, an idiom, or mode of expression peculiar to certain Arabs. Accordingly, the hadith "Nazal al Qur'ān 'alā sab'at aḥruf" would mean, "The Qur'an has been revealed in seven dialects of the dialects of the Arabs." This interpretation is attributed to Abū 'Ubayd, Aḥū al 'Abbās (291/903), al Azharī (370/980), and Ibn al Athīr (606/1209). Ibn al Athīr considered this interpretation the best one. 32

The Interpretation of "Seven Ahruf"

As seen above, most scholars say that the number seven mentioned in the *aḥadith* is really meant to be the exact number; however, they differ in interpreting the meaning of the word *aḥruf* because *aḥruf* is a common word that has several meanings that can be determined only by context.³³

^{27.} Lisān al 'Arab, 9:42.

^{28.} Qāmūs, 3:131; Lisān al 'Arab, 9:41-42; Lane, book I, part II, 550.

^{29.} Qāmūs, 3:131; Lisān al 'Arab, 9:41; Lane, book I, part II, 550.

^{30.} Lisān al 'Arab, 9:41; Lane, book I, part II, 550.

^{31.} Qāmūs, 3:131; Lisān al 'Arab, 9:41; Lane, book I, part II, 550.

^{32.} Nihāyah, 1:369 (see Chapter 5).

^{33.} Manāhil. 1:146.

To complicate matters, the context of the $ah\bar{a}d\bar{\iota}th$ under discussion allows for more than one interpretation.³⁴

This early difference of opinion produced many sayings, all of which are repeated and overlap. Ibn Hibbān (354/965) counted thirty-five of them,³⁵ while al Suyūṭī claimed that there were about forty, although he did not quote all of them.³⁶

A comprehensive study and comparison of all the views and opinions expressed concerning these $ah\bar{a}dith$ allows us to summarize and arrange them as follows:

1. They are ambiguous and their meaning cannot be known with certainty because the word *ḥarf* has different meanings: a letter of the alphabet, a word, a meaning, or a way.

This is the view of Ibn Sa'dān al Naḥwī (231/845).³⁷ This view has been opposed on the ground that a common word can be known and fixed according to the context. For instance, the word 'ayn has more than one meaning that can be realized and identified in the sentence in which it occurs. Examples are "Nazartu bi al 'ayn al mujarradah" and "Sharibtu min 'ayn Zubaydah." The meaning is clear and unambiguous. In the first sentence, the word 'ayn means "eye," and in the second sentence it means "water". This is made clear by the use of the word nazartu (I have seen) in the first sentence and the word sharibtu (I have drunk) in the second sentence.³⁸

2. The word *harf* may mean "ways of pronunciation," which was the view of al Khalīl Ibn Ahmad (170/786).³⁹

This has been objected to because no word in the Qur'an can be read in seven ways, except for a few words, such as the word "uff." Even if it is argued that each word may be read in one way or more up to seven, there are many words that can be read in more than seven ways.⁴⁰

Most of the scholars; for example, al Tabarī (310/922), oppose this view, and even al Zarkashī (794/1391) considered it the weakest one.⁴¹

However, the seven ahruf, if the meaning of the word is to be taken in this way, must not be regarded as being in any way connected with the

^{34.} Burhān, 1:212.

Itqān, 1:173-76, Burhān, 1:212; Ibn Hibbān says: "These sayings resemble one another and are possible, and other interpretations are possible." See Itqān, 1:176.

^{36.} Itgān, 1:131-41.

^{37.} Burhān, 1:213; Itgān, 1:131.

^{38.} Manāhil, 1:165.

^{39.} Burhān, 1:213.

^{40.} Ibid., 1:213; Itqān, 1:132.

^{41.} Burhān, 1:213.

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seven readings that were collected for the first time by Ibn Mujāhid (324/935)⁴² and that did not exist in the Prophet's lifetime or even in the first century.

Indeed, scholars of Qur'anic studies used to collect readings regardless of number, and many more readings than the seven of Ibn Mujāhid existed. The first scholar known to have collected readings in written form is Abū 'Ubayd al Qāsim Ibn Sallām (224/838), who is said to have given twenty-five readings.⁴³

Later al Tabarī (310/922) wrote a book called al Jāmi' fī al Qirā'āt, which contained more than twenty readings. This work no longer esists, although much of the material is incorporated into his Tafsīr. Many scholars did not agree with Ibn Mujāhid's attempt to limit the number of readings to seven for the precise reason that the following generation might think that these seven readings were the same as the seven aḥruf referred to in the hadith. Indeed, a famous scholar in the field of Qur'anic readings, Abū Shāmah (665/1267), is quoted as having said, "No one thinks that these seven readings are what is meant in the hadith except the ignorant."

3. The seven aḥruf indicate seven meanings.

Those who subscribe to this opinion differ in their interpretation. Some say, for example, that it refers to command and prohibition. Some say, for example, that it refers to command and prohibition, lawful and unlawful, muhkam and mutashābih⁴⁶ (that whose meaning is accepted and that which is disputable) and parables (amthāl).⁴⁷

A hadith related by Hākim (405/1014) and al Bayhaqī (458/1065) favors this view: "The Qur'an has been revealed from seven doors according to seven aḥruf: restraining, commending, lawful, unlawful, muḥkam, mutashābih, and amthāl." However, this hadith, which is not reported elsewhere, is said by Ibn 'Abd al Barr (563/1070) not to be authentic but weak. Furthermore, al Bayhaqī himself, who narrated this hadith, stated that what is meant here by the seven aḥruf is the kinds of meaning in which the Qur'an has been revealed, but that the other aḥādīth refer to dialects. 50

^{42.} Nashr, 1:34.

^{43.} Ibid., 33-34.

^{44.} Ibid., 34; more detail on this matter is available in Chapter 6.

^{45.} Nashr, 1:36.

^{46.} Itgan, 1:138.

^{47.} Itgān, 1:136-38.

^{48.} Ibid., 136.

^{49.} Burhān, 1:216.

Itqān, 1:137. This is also the view of Abū Shāmah, Abū 'Alī al Ahwāzī, and Abū al 'Alā' al Hamadānī. See ibid., 171-72.

Ibn al Jazarī (833/1429) raised a good reason for refuting this view, which is that the Companions did not dispute with each other about the interpretation of the verses but only about the ways of the recitation, as happened between 'Umar and Hishām and others.⁵¹

Finally, it is impossible to recite the Qur'an as if all of it is *ḥalāl* or *ḥarām* or *amthāl*.⁵² It is allowable to recite a verse in several ways, but not for a verse to be read in various ways that lead to contradiction, in meaning as would be the case with *ḥalāl* and *ḥarām*.⁵³

4. The seven *ahruf* are ways of recitation using synonyms, for example, *ta'āl*, *aqbil*, *'ajjil*, *asri'*.

Many scholars adopted this opinion⁵⁴ and quoted their evidence from the *aḥādīth* referring to the revelation of the Qur'an in seven *aḥruf*. Abū Bakrah states that: "Jibril came to the Prophet and said, 'O Muhammad, recite the Qur'an in one *ḥarf*,' and Mīkā'īl said: 'Ask for more,' till he reached seven *aḥruf*, each effective and sufficient, provided you do not seal a verse of punishment with mercy or a verse of mercy with punishment, like your saying, 'Ta'āl, aqbil, halumma, idhhab, asri', 'ajjil.'"⁵⁵

This interpretation is open to debate. First, this hadith is meant to show that the *ahruf* in which the Qur'an has been revealed are synonymous in one meaning and, second, to witness that there is no contradiction in these *ahruf* (i.e., they do not seal a verse of punishment with mercy).⁵⁶

Further, individuals are not at liberty to recite the Qur'an in their own way or to replace one word or letter with another, whether it changes the meaning or not.⁵⁷ One should have heard the appropriate recitation from the Prophet himself directly or from him through his Companions and Successors.⁵⁸ In this respect, we may refer to the above-mentioned argument between 'Umar and Hishām, where each one said, "Allah's Apostle has taught it me."⁵⁹

^{51.} Nashr, 1:25.

^{52.} Itgān, 1:137.

^{53.} Ibid.

^{54.} Itqān, 1:134-35. Al Suyūṭī, quoting from Ibn 'Abd al Barr, attributes this to most of the scholars and specifically mentions the names of Sufyān Ibn 'Uyaynah, al Ţabarī, Ibn Wahb, and al Ṭaḥāwī.

Related by Ahmad and Tabarani with a sound chain. Other versions give the same meaning. See Qurtubi, 1:42; Itaān, 1:134.

^{56.} Qurtubī, 1:42; Itqān, 1:134, quoting Ibn 'Abd al Barr.

^{57.} Qurtubī, 1:43, quoting al Bāqillānī.

^{58.} Fath al Bārī, 9:22.

^{59.} Bukhārī, 6:483.

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Moreover, those who adopted this opinion agreed that this permission was given in the beginning when most Arabs were illiterate and that subsequently the other six *aḥruf* were abrogated, so that there is only one *ḥarf* available now. We can contest this interpretation because it is still permissible to recite the Qur'an in several ways, so that one can find an example of synonyms in *Sūrat al Ḥujurāt*, where *fatabayyanū* is also read *fatathabbatū*. Si

Thus we cannot claim that all variants of this type have been abrogated or that the term *harf* implies such a temporary concession with the aim of making recitation easier for the first generation.⁶²

5. The seven ahruf are seven dialects of the Arabs.

The Arab dialects, of course, exceeded seven, but the supporters of this view maintain that what is meant is the seven most eloquent dialects.⁶³ There is no agreement on identifying these seven dialects and the various versions differ greatly, although all agree on including the Qurayshī dialect.⁶⁴

Ibn Qutaybah (275/888) attempted to prove that the Qur'an was revealed only in the Qurayshī dialect, quoting the Qur'anic text:

We sent not an Apostle except (to teach) in the language of his (own) people, in order to make (things) clear to them. Now God leaves straying those whom He pleases and guides whom He pleases: and He is Exalted in Power, Full of Wisdom. (14:4)

In his opinion, these dialects should represent various branches of Quraysh. Al Qastallānī (923/1517) maintains that Quraysh were neighbors of the Ka'bah, and that they were preeminent among the Arab tribes. Their practice was to choose the best of style and words from the dialects of all the tribes that came to Makkah. This view, however, appears to be an attempt to conflate two different ideas; i.e., that the *aḥruf* were dialects and that they were all variants of Qurayshī Arabic. In this respect, a state-

^{60.} Qurtubī, 1:43; Itqān, 1:134-35.

^{61. 49:6.} The latter being the reading of Hamzah and al Kisa'i, while the former is read by the rest of the Qurrā'. See al Qaysī, Kitāb al Tabşirah, 480, 681; Nashr, 2:351, 376, adding Khalaf to Hamzah and al Kisā'i.

^{62.} Manāhil,1:68-69.

Burhān, 1:217-18; Itqān, 1:169. This view is related by Abū 'Ubayd al Qāsim Ibn Sallām, Tha'lab, Sijistanī, al Qāḍi Abū Bakr, al Azharī, al Bāqillānī, and Ibn 'Aṭiyyah. See also Ibn Abī Zakariyyā, Al Ṣāḥibi, 41-42.

^{64.} Itgān, 1:135-36; Nashr, 1:24; Burhān, 1:218-19; Qurtubī, 1:44-45.

^{65.} Itgān, 1:135, where Abū 'Alī al Ahwāzī is also quoted.

^{66.} Latā'if, 1:33.

ment is attributed to 'Uthman: "The Our'an has been revealed in the language of Ouravsh."67 The most that this statement can mean is that the Our'an is mainly in the Ouravshi dialect, since features from other dialects are found; for example, the retention of hamza, which generally disappears in the language of Hijāz.68 However, many accounts indicate that the Our'an was not revealed solely in the style of Ouravsh. Although sometimes it is in the style of Ouraysh, it also is in the style of other Arab tribes. according to the most fluent and concise forms of expression. For instance, Ibn 'Abbās did not understand the meaning of the word fatar until he heard two bedouins talking about digging a well who were using this verb.⁶⁹ It might be most reasonable to assume that the Our'an was revealed in the dialect of Ouravsh and their neighbors at the beginning of the revelation. Then permission came later for all Arabs to recite the Our'an in their own dialects, which they were used to, bearing in mind that these dialects were extremely varied. Thus they were not ordered or even asked to abandon their own dialects in favor of that of Ouravsh, because it was difficult to do so and because people tried to cling strongly to their dialects. Above all, the permission facilitated the recitation and understanding of the Our'an.70

However, no individual was given permission to replace any given word (of the Qur'an) by a synonym in his own dialect; everyone had to be taught the word directly from the Prophet. On the other hand, no objections exist against this idea of the Qur'an's revelation in seven dialects for 'Umar and Hishām, although belonging to Quraysh, differed in their recitation. It does not seem reasonable to accept disagreement between two men who spoke in one dialect unless that difference referred to something else.

^{67.} Quriubī, 1:44. There is another version attributed to 'Umar in which he wrote to 'Abd Allāh Ibn Mas'ūd: "The Qur'an has been revealed in the language of Quraysh, so do not recite to the people in the dialect of Hudhayl." See also al Qastallānī, Latā'if, 1:33. In some versions of these sayings, the name of Mudar appears instead of Quraysh, but Ibn 'Abd al Barr says: "The authentic version is the first in which Quraysh was mentioned, because it is sound and came through the people of Madīnah (Burhān, 1:219-20). Also, some features of the speech of Mudar are anomalous and are not allowed in the recitation of the Qur'an. As examples, the Kashkashah of Qays changes the feminine singular second person—ki—into shi in the verse "Rabbuki Taḥtaki" to read "Rabbushi Taḥtashi" (19:24) and the tamtamah of Tamīm, e.g., changing sīn to tā' so that "al Nās" reads "al Nāt" (Qurtubī, 1:45; Burhān, 1:219-20).

^{68.} Qurțubī, 1:44, quoting Ibn 'Abd al Barr and al Qădī Ibn al Țayyib, who state: "Allāh Almighty says: 'We have made it a Qur'an in Arabic' (43:3, A. Y. Ali's Translation, p. 1342) and the Almighty did not say 'Qur'ānan Qurashiyyan.'" No one claims that only Quraysh is meant here because the name of Arab covers all tribes.

^{69.} Qurtubī, 1:45.

Nashr, 1:22; Fath al Bārī, 9:22. In this respect, the Encyclopaedia of Islam (1st ed.),
 2:1067, says: "The language in which Muhammad delivered his revelation was according to the most natural assumption, the Hidjāz dialect of the people of Mecca."

^{71.} *Itgān*, 1:136.

^{72.} Nashr, 1:24; Itqān, 1:136. Al 'Izz Ibn 'Abd al Salām objected to the interpretation of the seven ahruf as seven dialects (Khams Rasā'il Nādirah, 64). See Ḥammūdah, al Qirā'āt wa al Lahajāt, 25.

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Later, in his *l'jāz al Qur'ān*, al Rāfi'ī adopted this view of interpreting the seven *aḥruf* as seven dialects of the Arabs, but the number seven in his opinion is a symbolic term meaning a considerable number. He says: "These seven *aḥruf* mean the dialects of the Arabs to make it easy for each tribe to recite the Qur'an in its own way as it was used to in its dialect." He claimed that—to Arabs—the word *ḥarf* merely means "dialect." But they began, after Islam, to use the word *ḥarf* for methods of recitation, as, for instance, in the expression, "Hādhā fī ḥarf Ibn Mas'ūd" meaning his reading."

6. The seven aḥruf indicate seven varieties and differences in the readings.

The first scholar to suggest this is Ibn Qutaybah, who was followed by the subsequent generation with little or no modification. Ibn Qutaybah studied the differences in readings and found they were the following seven:

- 1. A difference in the i'rāb and vocalization of the word that does not alter its consonantal outline in the orthography and does not alter its meaning (e.g., hunna aṭharu/hunna aṭhara).⁷⁴
- 2. A difference in the *i'rāb* and the vocalization of the word that alters the meaning of the word but does not alter its consonantal outline (e.g., *rabbanā bā'id/rabbunā bā'ada*).⁷⁵
- 3. A difference in the aḥruf of the word (but not in its i'rāb) that alters its meaning and does not change its consonantal outline (e.g., nun-shizuhā/nanshuruhā). ⁷⁶
- 4. A difference in the word that changes its consonantal outline in the orthography and does not change its meaning (e.g., kānat illā sayhatan/zaqyatan).
- 5. A difference in the word that changes its consonantal outline and its meaning (e.g., wa talhin mandūd/wa tal'in nadīd).**
- 6. A difference in word order (e.g., wa jā'at sakratu al mawti bi al ḥaqqi/sakratu al ḥaqqi bi al mawti)."

^{73.} I'jāz al Qur'ān, 70-71. For more details, see Chapter 5.

^{74. 11:78.}

^{75. 35:19.}

^{76. 2:259.}

^{77. 36:29.}

^{78. 56:29} and 50:10. Ibn al Jazarī approved this analysis of Ibn Qutaybah except that he criticized it with respect to this example since it has no relevance to the difference in reading. Ibn al Jazarī says: "If he had used as an example in place of this bi danī n/bi zanī n (81:24), the example would be valid." See Nashr, 1:28.

^{79. 50:19.}

7. A difference in letters or augment (e.g., wa mā 'amilathu/wa mā 'amilat).80

Ibn al Jazarī's work agrees with Ibn Qutaybah in how he explains the aḥruf, except that he more clearly identifies and gives examples.

Abū al Fadl al Rāzī (630/1232) follows the same approach to this question as does Ibn Qutaybah, but he puts the differences in a different order. For instance, his first and second types are included in the fifth type of Ibn Qutaybah and Ibn al Jazarī while the third covers the first and second of the other two. The sixth type of al Rāzī agrees with the fifth of the others, and the seventh might be included in the first of Ibn Qutaybah and Ibn al Jazarī. The third type of al Rāzī agrees with the fifth of the others, and his seventh might be included in the first of Ibn Qutaybah and Ibn al Jazarī. However, this last suggestion of al Rāzī should not be dismissed, since al Rāzī refers here to difference in dialect concerned with absence or presence of *imālah*, *tafkhīm*, *hamzah*, etc. Some scholars consider all differences to be a question of differences in pronunciation of this type.⁸¹

These are the differences between the scholars, who agree in their general approach. For instance, Makkī Ibn Abī Ṭālib mentions that a group of scholars adopted a view similar to that of Ibn Qutaybah, but he only explains their interpretation.⁸²

The scholars who take this view are Ibn Qutaybah, ⁸³ Ibn al Jazarī, ⁸⁴ al Rāzī, ⁸⁵ Makkī Ibn Ṭālib al Qaysī (437/1045), ⁸⁶ the author of *Kitāb al Mabānī fī Nazm al Ma'ānī*, ⁸⁷ and Ibn al Bāqillānī (403/1012). ⁸⁸

Al Khū'ī's Al Bayān fī Tafsīr al Qur'ān⁸⁹ rejects all the aḥādīth of the revelation of the Qur'an in seven aḥruf simply on the grounds that these aḥadīth were not narrated through the isnād (pl. asānīd) of Ahl al Bayt in line with his Shi'īte methodology. He states that after the Prophet, reference in religious affairs should be made only to the Qur'an and Ahl al Bayt, whom Allah Almighty has purified. Hence, no versions are valid if they

^{80. 36:35.}

^{81.} Itqān, 1:133; al Rāfi'ī, in his book l'jāz al Qur'ān, 70, adopts this view. The work of the author of Kitāb al Mabānī fī Nazm al Ma'ānī adopts the same view. See Muqad-dimatān fī 'Ulūm al Qur'ān, ed., A. Jeffery, 221-28.

^{82.} Ibānah, 36.

^{83.} Ta'wīl Mushkil al Qur'ān, 28-30.

^{84.} Nashr, 1:26-27.

^{85.} Ibid., 25; Fath al Bārī, 9:29. Ibn Ḥajar says here, "Al Rāzī quoted Ibn Qutaybah and refined it."

^{86.} Ibānah, 37-42.

^{87.} Muqaddimatān, 221-28.

^{88.} Nukat al Intișār, 120-22; Qurțubī, 1:109-13.

^{89.} Al Khū'ī, al Bayān fī Tafsīr al Qur'ān, 177-90.

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differ from what is right in their view. Thus, there is no need to speak about the *asānīd* of these versions, this being the first reason to reject these versions and to consider them unauthentic.⁵⁰

Furthermore, al Khū'ī' claims that these versions contain contradictions. For instance, permission to recite the Qur'an, according to one hadith, was given all at once. In one version Ubayy entered the mosque and saw a man reciting in a way different from his, but another version states that Ubayy was in the mosque and two men entered the mosque and recited in different ways from each other.⁹¹

Finally, al Khū'ī says that the reply was not related to the question in the version relating to Ibn Mas'ūd, who is reported to have differed with another person as to whether a certain surah should be reckoned as having thirty-five or thirty-six verses. 'Alī was beside the Prophet and answered, "The Messenger of Allah commands you to recite as you have been taught."⁹²

All in all, in his opinion, there is no reasonable meaning for the revelation of the Qur'an in seven *ahruf* and it is not understandable.⁹³

This view has no firm basis. First, it is not agreed outside Shī'ite circles that Ahl al Bayt are the only references for the Islamic Sharī'ah and that the narrations of Ahl al Sunnah—including Abū Bakr, 'Umar, and 'Uthmān—are invented. Al Khū'ī's approach would rule out a priori all discussions of the aḥruf, and from an objective academic point of view there is no justification for denying the validity of the hadith of Ahl al Sunnah in their entirety. It is stated clearly in the Qur'an:

O mankind! We created you from a single (pair) of a male and a female, and made you into nations and tribes, that you may know each other (not that you may despise each other). Verily the most honored of you in the sight of God is (the one who is) the most righteous of you . . . (49:13)

In any case, the differences between the versions in letters or words do not affect the truth of the hadith, nor can contradictions refute an authentic hadith.

^{90.} Ibid., 177. He quoted from Uşūl al Kāfī, 4:438-39, Abū Ja'far's statement: "The Qur'an has been revealed from One, but the difference comes from the narrators." It is also stated (439) that Abū 'Abd Allāh was asked about sayings that the Qur'an was revealed in seven aḥruf and he replied: "They lied and were enemies of Allāh and it was revealed in one harf from the One."

^{91.} Ibid.

^{92.} Ibid., 178.

^{93.} Ibid.

Al Khū'ī contradicts himself when he says: "Hence we find that the narrators differ in some words of al Mutanabbī's poems but this difference does not invalidate the existence of the qaṣīdah or its successive transmission (tawātur)." In the same way, the differences between the narrators in the details of the Prophet's Hijrah do not contradict the Hijrah itself or its tawātur. If this is so, it is difficult to see why this principle should not also be applied to the question of the ahruf. As for the objection that there is no relation between the question and the answer (in the hadith of 'Abd Allāh Ibn Mas'ūd), this can be answered quite simply by pointing out that the Companions were learning the recitation and counting the verses, because the Prophet would pause at the end of each verse (āyah). This was part of the process of teaching. The Companions studied not more than ten verses at a time to recite and practice.

Naturally, having rejected the revelation of the Qur'an in seven aḥruf, al Khū'ī does not accept the interpretation of the hadith but uses opposing arguments in an attempt to discredit them all. Despite this, he, surprisingly, mentions that he views al Rāfi'ī's opinion as closest to the truth, but rejects it because al Rāfi'ī interpreted "seven" as a symbolic term. He also reduces Ibn Qutaybah's views to six. In addition, he says there is a seventh way of reading the Qur'an upon which all scholars agree, that Ibn Qutaybah does not take this into account, and that his seven interpretations of difference are in fact eight. Thus, in addition to rejecting Ibn Qutaybah's premises, al Khū'ī wishes to show that his arguments are in any case fallacious.

Moreover, contrary to al Khū'ī's claim, the *ahadīth* have a perfectly feasible value, which is that of facilitating recitation and making it easier for the Muslims to understand.⁹⁹ The scholars' differences in interpreting these *ahadīth* do not affect the authenticity of the *ahadīth*.¹⁰⁰

However, the Shī'ite scholar Abū 'Abd Allāh al Zinjānī, in his book Tārīkh al Qur'ān, quoted the hadith narrated by 'Umar Ibn al Khaṭṭāb and many other aḥādīth.¹⁰¹ He chooses the view of al Ṭabarī as the best interpretation, this referring to the seven ways of recitation using synonyms.¹⁰² Later he mentions that it might be possible to interpret this hadith as refer-

^{94.} Bayān, 158.

This is confirmed by a sound hadith related by Abū Dāwūd and al Ḥākim. See al Albānī, Şifat Şalāt al Nabiyy, 70-71.

^{96.} Ibn Taymiyyah, Fatāwā, 13:402; Tartib al Musnad, 18:9.

^{97.} Bayan, 191-93.

^{98.} Ibid., 188.

^{99.} See pp. 4-5 of this study.

^{100.} For more information about the authenticity of these ahādīth, see pp. 6-7 of this study.

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ring to the differences in the recitation of the Qur'an (e.g., $im\bar{a}lah$, $ishm\bar{a}m$, and $idgh\bar{a}m$) as they have been narrated by the seven readers. ¹⁰³ Al Zinjānī attributed this view to al Shahrastānī in his $Tafs\bar{i}r$. ¹⁰⁴

In conclusion, many sources and references support and witness to the revelation of the Qur'an in the seven $ahr\bar{u}f$, which can be put in the following order:

- 1. The fact that many authentic and sound *aḥādīth* indicate that the Qur'an has been revealed in seven different *aḥrūf*. 105
- 2. The discussions and disputes among the Companions about differences in recitation during the lifetime of the Prophet, who himself taught them to recite in many ways different from each other.¹⁰⁶
- 3. The disputes among the successors $(T\bar{a}bi'\bar{u}n)$ during the time of the "rightly guided" caliphs, particularly in the time of 'Uthmān.¹⁰⁷
- 4. The many examples of differences in recitation that exist in the books of *sunan*, like those of al Bukhārī, Muslim, al Tirmidhī, and others. Moreover, the books of *tafsīr* like that of al Ṭabarī¹⁰⁹ and books on the history of *qirā'āt* and *maṣāhif*, like that of Ibn Abī Dāwūd, ¹¹⁰ include many different *riwāyāt* of the readings of the Qur'an. ¹¹¹
- 5. The Qurrā', the readers of the Qur'an in different ways of recitation, continuously, through generations, memorized and taught their students and followers the qirā'āt, readings of the Qur'an in different ways according to rules of riwāyāt and isnād.

The following chapters will study these $qir\bar{a}'\bar{a}t$ and the conditions governing them, and will attempt to discover whether any are not based on

^{101.} For the text of this aḥādī th and some others, see al Zinjāmī, Tārīkh al Qur'ān, 33-37, and pp. 3-5 of this study.

^{102.} Al Zinjānī, Tārīkh al Qur'ān, 37.

^{103.} Ibid., also see pp. 13-14 of this study.

^{104.} This tafsīr is called Mafātīh al Asrār wa Maṣābīh al Abrār, which al Zinjānī says is a respected tafsīr. The author of this tafsīr is Abū al Fath Muḥammad Ibn al Qāsim Ibn Aḥmad al Shahrastānī, a theologian and jurist who was born in 477 A.H. and died in 548 A.H. A manuscript of this work exists in the Majlis Library, Tehran. See Tārīkh al Qur'ān, 36.

^{105.} See pp. 3-9 of this book.

^{106.} Ibid., 3-4, 5-6.

^{107.} See Ibn Abī Dāwūd, Kitāb al Maṣāḥif, ed. A. Jeffery, passim.

^{108.} Each book has a chapter or more on the qirā'āt under Tafsīr and Fadā'il al Qur'ān.

^{109.} Al Tabari, Jāmi' al Bayān fī Tafsīr al Qur'ān.

^{110.} See also A. Jeffery, Material for the History of the Text of the Qur'an, including Kitāb al Maṣāhif, passim.

^{111.} Al Qirā'āt wa al Lahajāt, 5.

the *mushaf* of 'Uthman, and whether in this case they may be derived from the *ahrūf*.

In conclusion, we may say that the scholars agreed unanimously that the Qur'an has been revealed in seven aḥrūf in order to facilitate the reading of the Qur'an. This apparently came after the Hijrah, when various tribes that spoke many different dialects embraced Islam and found it difficult to abandon their own dialects immediately.

Those who deny the authenticity of the *aḥādīth* dealing with this subject do not seem to have any objective basis for their arguments.

Finally, although scholars disagree as to the meaning of the *aḥrūf*, the most natural interpretation is that they refer to linguistic variations in the manner of reciting the Qur'an. However, it is difficult to commit to any of the specific definitions of these linguistic variations advanced by various scholars.

CHAPTER 2



The Prophet (peace be upon him) had scribes whom he ordered to write down the revelation of the Qur'an on materials' available at that time.

It is stated that whenever he received verses or surahs, he commanded one of his scribes immediately to record and to arrange them in their places in the surahs of the Qur'an.²

Many accounts support this view, that every revealed verse was written down at the time of its revelation and was put in a preordained order and kept in a safe place.³

Many scribes took down the revelation. Some were assigned permanently to record the revelation, being given the title of *Kātib al Waḥy*, while others normally were engaged on other secretarial duties and were brought in to take down the revelation only occasionally.⁴

The scribes of the revelation whom the Prophet asked to write down the verses—and the portions of the Qur'an that he received—were many; even more scribes performed secretarial duties.⁵

Certain scholars tried to count the number of scribes by using the sources available to them. Ibn Kathīr counts twenty-two,6 and recently we find the number increased to thirty-three7 or about sixty.8 The most famous

These are said to have included palm stalks ('usub), thin white stones (likhāf), pieces of wood (alwāh), and shoulder bones (aktāf). See Bukhārī, 6:478 and 481. For more detail, see p. 29 below.

^{2.} Al Baghawī, Sharh al Sunnah, 4:522.

Al Bukhārī, 6:480.

Fatḥ al Bārī, 9:22; Kitāb al Wuzarā' wa al Kuttāb, 12-14; Al Bidāyah wa al Nihāyah, 5:339-55; Al 'Iqd al Farīd, 4:245-47.

Al Musnad, 6:250; Kitāb al Maṣāḥif, 3; al Jahshiyārī, Kitāb al Wuzarā' wa al Kuttāb, 12-14; Al Bidāyah wa al Nihāyah, 5:339-55; Fath al Bārī, 9:22; Al 'Iqd al Farī d, 4:245-54.

^{6.} Al Bidāyah wa al Nihāyah, 5:339-55.

^{7.} Ma'a al Masāhif, 15-18.

^{8.} Kuttāb al Nabiyy, 3rd ed. (Beirut: 1981).

scribes are 'Uthmān, 'Ali, Ubayy Ibn Ka'b, and Zayd Ibn Thābit,' who is known as Kātib al Nabiyy or Kātib al Waḥy. 10

To ensure that the Qur'an would not be confused with his own utterances, the Prophet is reported to have ordered his Companions to write nothing except the Qur'an. Furthermore, he commanded those who may have written down anything other than the Qur'an to efface it.¹¹

As a result, the entire revelation is said to have been gradually secured, kept in a written form, and stored in the Prophet's house.¹²

The Prophet gave a number of the Companions permission to have their own manuscripts (in the sense of collections of fragments) in addition to memorizing the Qur'an.¹³ The most famous among them, who are said to have taught many others, are the following: 'Uthmān, 'Alī, Ubayy Ibn Ka'b, Abū al Dardā', Zayd Ibn Thābit, 'Abd Allāh Ibn Mas'ūd, Abū Mūsā al Ash'arī ¹⁴ Sālim (the *mawlā* of Abū Hudhayfah), and Mu'ādh Ibn Jabal.¹⁵

Thus, the Qur'an was memorized by many Companions and was all written down in the form that has come to us (i.e., the same verses and surahs in the very same order).¹⁶

Though the Qur'an was fully recorded, using all possible writing materials, it was not written in the form of a *muṣḥaf* (referring to the Qur'an in book form). This was done later after the Prophet had passed away.

Even before the recorded Qur'anic text was in book form, it was known as Al Kitāb (The Book). For instance, the Qur'an states in 2:2: "This is the book without doubt; in it is guidance sure to those who fear God."

The Prophet is also reported as having said before his death: "I have left amongst you Muslims that which, if you stick to it, you will not be misguided—the book of Allah."¹⁷

Al Baghawī explains that these records were not compiled in an official *muṣḥaf* during the time of the Prophet because some verses were abrogated during the period of the revelation of the Qur'an. When there was no more abrogation and the revelation was sealed, the time had come for the formal compilation to be carried out.¹⁸

^{9.} Kitāb al Wuzarā' wa al Kuttāb, 12; Al Bidāyah wa al Nihāyah, 7:145; Fath al Bārī, 9:22.

^{10.} Fath al Bārī, 9:22.

^{11.} Al Nasă'ī, Fadā'il al Qur'ān, 72; Al Khatīb al Baghdādi, Taqyīd al 'Ilm. 29-32.

^{12.} Fath al Bārī, 9:13; Sharh al Sunnah, 5:521-22.

^{13.} Kitāb al Maṣāḥif, 50-88; Al Iṣābah fī Tamyīz al Sahābah, 2:489; Materials, 20-238.

^{14.} Manāhil, 1:245

^{15.} Bukhārī, 6:487, adds these two names to the list given in Manāhil.

^{16.} See, for example, al Baghawi, Sharh al Sunnah, 4:518.

^{17.} Al Nawawī, Sahīḥ Muslim bi Sharḥ al Nawawī, 7:184.

^{18.} Sharh al Sunnah, 5:519.

Burton argues against this view on the basis of his rejection of the two modes of *mansūkh al tilāwah*.¹⁹ However, a stronger argument in its favor would be the fact that it would be pointless to compile the Qur'an into a bound *muṣḥaf* until the process of revelation was completed.

Compilation of the Qur'an during the Reigns of Abū Bakr and 'Uthmān

The Companions and their Followers relied on memorizing the Qur'an—teaching the young and newly converted Muslims the Qur'an through memorization. In addition, they had their personal manuscripts.

The Qur'an remained uncompiled in official book form until the year 12 A.H., when seventy of the *Ḥuffāz* were killed in Yamāmah fighting against the self-proclaimed prophet Musaylimah.²⁰ Forty *Ḥuffāz*, and possibly seventy, had been killed earlier in the battle of Bi'r Ma'ūnah.²¹

'Umar came to Abū Bakr with the suggestion that the Qur'an should be compiled in a single book as a safeguard against the loss of some parts of the records or the death of the *Huffāz*.

Abū Bakr considered the matter carefully and agreed with 'Umar after some hesitation. He then entrusted Zayd Ibn Thābit with the compilation since he had the following qualifications:

- 1. He was the well-known scribe of the revelation (Kātib al Waḥy al Mashhūr).
- 2. He was a Ḥāfiz of the Qur'an.
- 3. He had checked through the text with the Prophet after the Prophet had recited it in the presence of Jibrīl for the last time.
- 4. He was young, knowledgeable, wise, and reliable.
- 5. He was skilled at writing the Qur'an.22

Zayd was afraid of carrying out this task because he felt that he could not do something that the Prophet had not asked him to do. Abu Bakr finally persuaded him, and he started the work by comparing the Prophet's record with the memorized and written versions of those of the *Ḥuffāz* who were available in Madīnah. He then wrote out the entire text

^{19.} See *The Collection of the Qur'ān*, passim. For a further discussion of this question, see also p. 49.

^{20.} Qurtubī, 1:50. See pp. 38-39 for a further discussion of the number killed.

Tārikh al Ṭabarī, 2:545-49; al Wāqidī, Maghāzī, 1:346-350; Al Kāmil, 2:171-72; Bukharī, 5:287-88.

^{22.} Fath al Bārī, 9:13.

in book form and presented the *muṣḥaf* to Abū Bakr, who received it and kept it in his custody.²³

The muṣḥaf remained with Abū Bakr until he died, then with 'Umar until the end of his life, and then with Ḥafṣah, the daughter of 'Umar and the wife of the Prophet, who was the executor for her father, and was herself a Ḥāfizah. This was because 'Umar had died before the installation of the third khalīfah.²⁴ At this time disputes arose about the reading of the Qur'an among the Qurrā' (i.e., readers) because some of the Companions and the Followers were teaching students in the cities they were sent to in versions that differed in various ways, and also because the Companions were reciting the Qur'an in the seven aḥruf they were permitted to use.

By the time of 'Uthmān, disputes among the readers became so heated that they were accusing each other of unbelief (kufr). Many complaints were brought before 'Uthmān, urging him to take action to avert fighting and division among the Muslims. Such disputes occurred in many places: Madīnah, Kūfah, Baṣrah, Syria, and the military camps (ajnād). Hudhayfah Ibn al Yamān was in the battle zones of Armenia and Azerbaijan and witnessed these disputes among Muslims. He became very annoyed and hastened to Madīnah to suggest to 'Uthmān a unified reading of the Qur'an. He addressed him saying, "O Chief of the Believers! Save this Ummah before they differ about the Book as the Jews and the Christians did before."

Consequently, 'Uthman called the $Muh\bar{a}jir\bar{u}n$ and $Ans\bar{a}r$ for consultation. All of them agreed and encouraged him to unify the reading of the Qur'an.²⁷

'Uthmān sent a message to Ḥafṣah saying: "Send us the manuscript of the Qur'an, so that we may compile the Qur'anic materials in perfect copies and return the manuscript to you." Ḥafṣah sent the manuscript to 'Uthmān. 'Uthmān then ordered Zayd Ibn Thābit, 'Abd Allāh Ibn al Zubayr, Sa'īd Ibn al 'Āṣ, and 'Abd al Raḥmān Ibn Ḥārith Ibn Hishām to write the manuscripts in perfect copies. 'Uthmān said to the Qurayshī men, "If you disagree with Zayd Ibn Thābit on any point in the Qur'an, write it in the dialect (*lisān*) of Quraysh as the Qur'an was revealed in their tongue." They did so and when they had written many copies, 'Uthmān returned the original manuscript to Ḥafṣah.²⁹

^{23.} Bukharī, 6:478.

^{24.} Fath al Bārī, 9:10-16.

^{25.} Tabarī, Tafsīr, 1:21; Itqān, 1:102; Al Maṣāḥif, 21; Al Muqni', 8.

^{26.} Bukhari, 6:479.

^{27.} Al Kāmil, 3:111-12.

^{28.} For further discussion, see Chapter 5.

^{29.} Bukhārī, 6:479.

To every Muslim region, 'Uthmān sent one copy and ordered that all the other Qur'anic materials, whether whole or fragmentary manuscripts, be burnt.³⁰

The Companions, the learned men, and the leading figures agreed with 'Uthmān and approved the decision he had made, including 'Alī.' Alī is reported to have confronted those who rebelled against 'Uthmān and said to them that 'Uthmān burnt only the *maṣāḥif* that varied from the final revelation and preserved that which was agreed upon,³¹ that he did nothing without the consultation and consent of all Companions, and, furthermore, that if he were in 'Uthmān's position he would have done the same thing.³²

In fact, Muslims in general admired 'Uthmān's action and agreed to it unanimously (with the exception of Ibn Mas'ūd) because 'Uthmān united them in one *muṣḥaf*, cleansed from any abrogated versions, and freed it from any āḥād reading or any interpretation that may have been added to the text.³³

Methods Adopted in This Compilation

We can assume that the scribes thoroughly investigated the text of the Qur'an in order to ensure the authenticity of the written form compared with memorized versions, that they ensured that all the verses and surahs they wrote down were revised according to the final revelation, that they were convinced that the text was as it had been recited by the Prophet in the final revelation, and that there were no abrogated verses in the mushaf (for example, $S\bar{u}rat$ al $Jumu^tah$ [62:9], where the word $f\bar{u}s^t\bar{u}$ is sometimes said to be read $f\bar{u}md\bar{u}$, but the authentic one is the first, the latter having been abrogated in the final revelation).³⁴

Thus, the people agreed unanimously with 'Uthmān, since his new compilation was in accordance with the first compilation of Abū Bakr. It is stated in a sound hadith (riwāyah ṣaḥīḥah) that the reading of Abū Bakr, 'Umar, 'Uthmān, 'Alī, Zayd Ibn Thābit, the Muhājirūn, and the Anṣār was the same, and was the common reading that was taught to them after the final revelation. The Prophet read the Qur'an with Jibrīl once in every Ramaḍān, but in the last Ramaḍān before he passed away he read it twice. Zayd Ibn Thābit bore witness to this final revelation and read it with the Prophet and wrote it down for him in this way.

^{30.} Ibid.

^{31.} Al Bidāyah wa al Nihāyah, 7:171.

Al Kāmil, 3:112. For a discussion of the position of 'Alr in Shr'ite sources, see p. 56 of this book.

^{33.} Manähil. 1:260-61.

^{34.} Ibid, 1:257-60.

Hence, this reading was named the reading of Zayb Ibn Thabit because he wrote it and read it to the Prophet and taught his students what he had been taught. For this reason also he was in charge of the project for the first and the second compilations.³⁵

The scribes of the compilation of 'Uthmān were four, according to Bukhārī. 36

Ibn Abī Dāwūd (316/928) narrates on the authority of Muhammad Ibn Sīrīn (110/729) that the scribes whom 'Uthmān instructed to compile the *Qur'ān* were twelve, being from the *Muhājirūn* and the *Anṣār*, and that Ubayy Ibn Ka'b was one of them. Ibn Sīrīn adds, "Kuthayyir Ibn Aflaḥ told me—and he was one of the scribes—that when they differed in writing something they used to postpone writing it. I think that this postponing was to make sure that it corresponded to the final revealed version."³⁷

It is said also that the scribes of this revelation were only two, Zayd Ibn Thābit and Sa'īd Ibn al 'Ās, for the reason that Zayd was the best in writing and Sa'īd was more eloquent in pronunciation.³⁸

Those who say that the scribes were twelve include scribes who dictated and others who wrote, but do not mention all of their names. Al 'Asqalānī found that nine of them are mentioned in various places by Ibn Abī Dāwūd and lists them.³⁹ They are, in addition to the four mentioned in Bukhārī,⁴⁰ Mālik Ibn Abī 'Āmir (grandfather of Mālik Ibn Anas), Kuthayyir Ibn Aflaḥ, Ubayy Ibn Ka'b, Anas Ibn Mālik, and 'Abd Allāh Ibn 'Abbās. Ibn Abī Dāwūd reports the command of 'Umar Ibn al Khaṭṭāb: "No one should dictate in our *maṣāḥif* except those who belonged to Quraysh and Thaqīf."⁴¹

Al 'Asqalānī argues that in fact no one from Thaqīf was among the scribes, as they were either from Quraysh or the *Anṣār*.⁴²He tries to evaluate these views and suggests that at the beginning of the compilation Zayd and Sa'īd were the sole scribes, but when help was needed to write out more copies to be sent to the provinces, the other scribes were added.⁴³

^{35.} Sharh al Sunnah, 5:525-26. It is narrated on the authority of 'Abd Allah Ibn Mas'ūd that he also witnessed the final revelation.

^{36. 6:479.} See also al Kāmil, 3:112.

^{37.} Fath al Bārī, 9:19; Al Maṣāḥif, 25-26.

^{38.} Fath al Bārī, 9:19.

^{39.} Ibid.; Al Masāḥif, 25-26.

^{40. 6:479.}

^{41.} Al Masāhif, 11.

^{42,} Fath al Bārī, 9:19.

^{43.} *Ibid.* For a modern attempt to establish the names of the other scribes, see *Ma' al Maṣāḥif*, 92; *Dirāsāt fī al Thaqāfah al Islāmiyyah*, 59.

Ibn Mas'ūd is said to have felt ignored or insulted when he was not asked to join the committee set up to compile the Qur'an. He is quoted as having said that he had been taught seventy surahs by the Prophet, while Zayd Ibn Thābit was a young boy playing with children. As a result, Ibn Mas'ūd is said to have refused to give his *muṣhaf* back to 'Uthmān to be burnt and to have told his students to do the same. Ibn Abī Dāwūd states, however, that Ibn Mas'ūd reconsidered and gave his *mushaf* back to 'Uthmān. 45

The reason 'Uthmān did not include Ibn Mas'ūd is discussed by al 'Asqalānī, who points out that Ibn Mas'ūd was not in Madīnah at the time when 'Uthmān urgently appointed the committee. He was in Kūfah. Furthermore, 'Uthmān did nothing more than reproduce the pages compiled by the command of Abū Bakr into one *muṣhaf*. In the times of Abū Bakr and of 'Uthmān, Zayd Ibn Thābit had the privilege of being the scribe in charge of compilation.⁴⁶

The Materials of Inscription of the Qur'an

The materials available at the time of the first compilation during the lifetime of the Prophet are said to have included the following: Palm stalks ('usub), thin white stones ($likh\bar{a}f$), boards ($alw\bar{a}h$), scapula bones ($akt\bar{a}f$), saddles ($aqt\bar{a}b$), leather ($ad\bar{a}m$), pieces of cloth ($riq\bar{a}^t$), potsherds (khazaf), shells (sadaf), ribs ($adl\bar{a}^t$), and parchment (raqq) so

When the compilation took place during the reign of Abū Bakr, the materials differed from those of the first inscription.

Al 'Asqalānī states that Abū Bakr was the first one to compile the Qur'an on paper⁵¹ and in one *muṣḥaf*. He supports his view by a version attributed to Ibn Shihāb al Zuhrī (124/741).⁵² He refutes the view that Zayd

^{44.} Al Musnad, 5:325, Fath al Bārī, 9:19; Qurṭubī, 1:52-53; Ibn Sa'd, al Ṭabaqāt, 2:444.

^{45.} Al Maṣāḥif, 18; Qurtubī, 1:52-53; Al Tamhīd wa al Bayān fī Maqtal al Shahīd 'Uthmān. The author, Muḥammad Ibn Yaḥya Ibn Abī Bakr, adds "but the followers of Ibn Mas'ūd did not agree with him. Then Ibn Mas'ūd asked 'Uthmān for permission to return to Madīnah as he did not wish to stay in Kūfah. He was given permission and came to Madīnah some months before he passed away."

^{46.} Fath al Barī, 9:19.

^{47.} Bukhārī, 6:478-81; Miftāḥ al Sa'ādah, 2:292; Al Muharrar al Wajīz, 1:64.

^{48.} Al Muharrar al Wajīz, 1:64.

^{49.} Ibn al Baqillani, al Tamhid, 222.

^{50.} Al Awā'il, 1:214. The author interprets raqq as waraq, which meant "parchment" at the time. In this connection it is reported also that individuals would come with a waraqah to the Prophet, whou would ask one of the scribes to write on it for him. See al Bayhaqī, Al Sunan al Kubrā. 6:16.

Clearly this is an anachronism, since even papyrus was not in use during this period in Arabia. Presumably, what is intended is parchment.

^{52.} Fath al Bārī, 9:16.

wrote for Abū Bakr on leather and palm leaf stalks and rewrote the Qur'an for 'Umar on paper.⁵³ He asserts that the Qur'an was written on leather and palm leaf stalks before the time of Abū Bakr and that it was rewritten on parchment during the reign of Abū Bakr.⁵⁴

In a modern study it is argued that the oldest *mushaf* in existence is that found in the Mosque of 'Amr Ibn al 'Āṣ in Egypt. It is written on parchment, probably the best medium for an important document such as the Qur'an, which is intended to have a long life.⁵⁵ Although papyrus was of course available in Egypt, which is not far from Arabia, none of the old *maṣāḥif* which exist today use it.⁵⁶ Paper was not known in the Islamic world before (134/751).⁵⁷

The Sending of the Maṣāhif to the Provinces

The number of *maṣāḥif* sent to the cities is not specified. The old sources cite no fixed number. However, al Bukhārī, on the authority of Anas Ibn Mālik, states: "'Uthmān sent to every Muslim province a copy of what they had copied" (*ilā kull ufuq min āfāq al Muslimīn*).⁵⁸

Ibn Abī Dāwūd states: "'Uthmān sent a muṣḥaf to every Muslim battlefield"⁵⁹ and "he distributed maṣāḥif to the people."⁶⁰

Likewise, in many other primary or secondary sources, no reference is made to a particular number of *maṣāḥif*.

Later on, reference is made to four copies with or without mentioning names of cities. Those which mentioned the number of *maṣāḥif* differ in the names of the cities to which the *maṣāḥif* were sent.

Ibrāhīm al Nakha'ī (d. 96/714) is quoted as supporting the view that the number of *maṣāhif* sent by 'Uthmān was four.61

Hamzah, one of the seven canonical readers, stated that his *muṣḥaf* was copied from the Kūfan *muṣḥaf*, which was one of the four *maṣāḥif* sent to the cities.⁶²

Abū 'Amr al Dānī (444/1052) states that four copies existed, three of which were sent to Kūfah, Baṣrah, and Makkah, while the fourth copy was kept in Madīnah in the custody of 'Uthmān. Al Dānī adds that this is the

^{53.} *Ibid*.

^{54.} Ibid.

^{55.} Al Zafzāf, Al Ta'rīf bi al Qur'ān wa al Ḥadīth, 84-85.

^{56.} Ibid.

^{57.} Al Tha'ālibī, Thimār al Qulūb, 543; Laṭā'if al Ma'ārif, 160, 218.

^{58.} Bukhārī, 6:479.

^{59.} Al Maṣāḥif, 20.

^{60.} Ibid., 12.

^{61.} Al Maṣāḥif, 35.

^{62.} Ibid., 34.

opinion of most scholars.⁶³ Al 'Asqalānī agrees with the famous saying that they number five.⁶⁴

According to Ibn al Bāqillānī they are five, a copy being sent to Kūfah, Başrah, Yaman, and Baḥrayn, while 'Uthmān kept a copy for himself.65 He is followed by al Qasṭallānī, who opts for the number mentioned by al 'Asqalānī.66

Ibn 'Āshir argues that five maṣāḥif were sent to Makkah, Damascus (Shām), Baṣrah, Kūfah, and Madīnah, while 'Uthmān kept a sixth copy for himself, which is known as Mushaf al Imām.⁶⁷

Al Zurqānī considered the evidence for the existence of copies five and six. He suggested that the scholars who counted them as five did not count the personal copy of 'Uthmān, and he therefore supported the view that counted them as six.⁶⁸

Abū Ḥātim al Sijistānī (d. 250/864) states: "'Uthmān sent seven maṣāhif, keeping one in Madīnah and distributing the rest to Makkah, Damascus, Yemen, Baḥrayn, Baṣrah, and Kūfah." He is seconded in this by Ibn 'Asākir (d. 571/1175) and Ibn Kathīr (d. 774/1372), except that the latter puts Egypt in the place of Baḥrayn. In Fadā'il al Qur'ān he gives the list quoted above, but in the later Al Bidāyah he mentions Egypt in place of Baḥrayn.

Al Rāfī'ī, in his book $T\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}kh$ $\bar{A}d\bar{a}b$ al 'Arab," supports this view, choosing the names suggested by Ibn Kathīr in his al Bidāyah.

Ibn al Jazarī (d. 833/1429) opts for the number mentioned by Abū Ḥātim, but adds that an eighth copy was retained by 'Uthmān, which was known as Mushaf al $Im\bar{a}m$.

Finally, al Ya'qūbī (284/897) counts nine copies, adding Egypt and al Jazīrah to the list given by Abū Ḥātim.⁷⁴

In conclusion, the most reliable evidence suggests that the number of maṣāḥif was six. The reason is that all of the scholarly works on qirā'āt refer repeatedly to the maṣāḥif of Madīnah, Makkah, Damascus (Shām),

^{63.} Al Muqni, 11; Al Murshid al Wajīz, 74.

^{64.} Fath al Bārī, 9:20.

^{65.} Nukat al Intisar, 359.

^{66.} Irshād al Sārī, 7:535.

^{67.} Manāhil al 'Irfān, 1:403.

^{68.} Ibid.

^{69.} Al Maşaḥif, 34; Al Murshid al Wajīz, 73.

^{70.} Tahdhīb Tarīkh Dimashq, 1:44.

^{71.} Al Bidāyah wa al Nihāyah, 3:216.

^{72. 2:20-21.}

^{73.} Al Nashr, 1:7.

^{74.} Tārīkh al Ya'qūbī, 2:1471.

Kūfah, and Baṣrah and Muṣḥāf al Imām, and never mention any other mushaf.⁷⁵

This argument is supported by the fact that 'Uthmān is said to have entrusted five *Qurrā*' with the *maṣāḥif*. He appointed Zayd Ibn Thābit to teach the people of Madīnah, and sent 'Abd Allāh Ibn al Sā'ib to Makkah, al Mughīrah Ibn Shihāb to Shām, Abū 'Abd al Raḥmān al Sulamī to Kūfah, and 'Āmir Ibn 'Abd al Qays to Baṣrah.⁷⁶

The students and followers of the Qurrā' taught the following generations in the same way that they had been taught." Thus there seems to be no place for Egypt, Baḥrayn, Yemen, or al Jazīrah, since no evidence points to them; the assumption that there were seven or more maṣāḥif is even less likely.

The earliest reports, which do not mention a fixed number of cities, can be interpreted to attest to five, since these were mainly where textual disputes were taking place at that time.

The addition of a sixth muṣḥaf may be credible in that it takes into account 'Uthmān's personal copy. This is supported by the fact that when 'Uthmān was killed, he was reading his personal muṣḥaf." There are early references to the muṣḥaf of 'Uthmān, which is known as Mushaf al Imām. Abū 'Ubayd al Qāsim Ibn Sallām quotes from this muṣḥaf and mentions that he has seen it." Ibn al Jazarī also is reported to have seen this muṣḥaf.

Moreover, the *muṣḥaf* of Madīnah is different from that of 'Uthmān. In this respect, al Shāṭibī states that Nāfi' quoted the *muṣḥaf* of Madīnah while Abū 'Ubayd quoted that of 'Uthmān.⁸¹

The Dating of the Compilation of the Qur'an in the Reign of 'Uthman

In all ahādīth that mention the compilation of the Qur'an in the time of 'Uthmān, no evidence suggests that the event took place other than after Hudhayfah had witnessed the dispute among the Qurrā' in the battle zone of Armenia.⁸²

Al Țabarī is the first who suggested a fixed date for this event. He states that it was in 24/644.83 Al 'Asqalānī agreed and tried to support the

^{75.} Al Mugni', 98-131; Abū 'Ubaydah, Fadā'il al Qur'ān, 264-300.

^{76.} Manāhil, 1:403-404; Ma' al Masāḥif, 90-91.

^{77.} Manāhil, 1:403-04.

^{78.} Al Tamhīd wa al Bayān, 138-39.

^{79.} Abū 'Ubaydah, Faḍā'il al Qur'ān, 264-300; Ma' al Maṣāḥif, 89.

^{80.} Ma' al Maşāḥif, 89.

^{81.} Kitāb 'Aqīlat Atrāb al Qaṣā'id, 12; Ma' al Maṣāḥif, 89.

^{82.} Țabarī, Tafsīr, 1:59-61; Bukhārī, 6:481; Kitāb al Maṣāḥif, 11-26.

^{83.} Tārīkh al Tabarī, 4:246. He also mentions another version that suggests the year 26 A.H.

accuracy of the date through other reports. He states, "This event took place in the year twenty five of the Hijrah in the third or second year of 'Uthmān's installation as khalīfah."84 He quotes Ibn Abī Dāwūd, on the authority of Mus'ab Ibn Sa'd Ibn Abī Waqqās, as saying, "'Uthmān preached and said: 'O People, only fifteen years elapsed since the Prophet passed away and you differ in the recitation of the Our'an."85 Al 'Asgalānī argues that the installation of 'Uthman took place after 'Umar's death at the end of Dhū' al Hijiah, in the twenty-third year of the Hijrah (i.e., twelve years and nine months after the death of the Prophet), and that if this is so then the compilation must have taken place two years and three months after his installation. He adds that in another version it is given as thirteen years instead of fifteen.86 He compares the two views and concludes that the event must have taken place one year after the installation of 'Uthman, which can be taken as the end of the twenty-fourth or the beginning of the twenty-fifth year of the Hijrah.87 However, the authenticity of both versions quoted by al 'Asqalanı has been questioned.88 Indeed, if they were sound, the scholars would have accepted his opinion unanimously, and no other suggestions would have been discussed.

Al 'Asqalānī also says, "It is claimed by some of our contemporaries that the event took place in the thirtieth year of the Hijrah," but he does not quote any reference or give any evidence.⁸⁹

The contemporary whom he quotes as suggesting the thirtieth year of the Hijrah is Ibn al Jazarī, who fixed this year in his book Al Nashr fī al Qirā'āt al 'Ashr (1:7). In fact, Ibn al Athīr, who preceded Ibn al Jazarī, mentions the same date, although he does not give any reference to support his view. Some other scholars affirm this opinion. Yet other scholars mention both dates without opting for either of them.

In some Western scholars' view, the event took place in 33/653 according to their dating of the conquest of Armenia. Hence, the Qur'an would have been compiled at that time.⁹³ One fact, however, contradicts

^{84.} Fath al Barī, 9:17.

^{85.} Ibid.

^{86.} Ibid.

^{87.} Ibid. In this he was followed by al Qaştallanı, Irshād al Sārī, 7:534; al Suyūṭı, Itqān, 1:170.

^{88.} Al Murshid al Wajīz, 59.

^{89.} Fath al Bārī, 9:17.

^{90.} Al Kāmil, 3:111-12.

^{91.} For example, Abū al Fidā', Al Mukhtaṣar fī Tārīkh al Bashar, 1;167; Muhammad Ibn Yaḥyā Ibn Abī Bakr, Al Tamhīd wa al Bayān, 50.

^{92.} For example, Latā'if al Ishārāt, 1:58.

^{93.} Brockelmann, History of the Islamic Peoples, 64.

this view, which is that Ibn Mas'ūd, who is reported to have refused to return his *muṣḥaf* to 'Uthmān and to have told his students not to hand their *maṣāḥif* over to be burnt, said to have died at the end of 32/652 or in 33 A.H. The following scholars agree that Ibn Mas'ūd died at Madīnah in 32 A.H.: al Ṭabarī, al Balādhurī (279/892), al 'Āmirī, blo Qutaybah, lo al Dhahabī, loi and Ibn 'Abd al Barr. If this date is correct, the compilation would have taken place earlier.

However, since this compilation has been connected with the conquest of Armenia in which Ḥudhayfah Ibn al Yamān was present, the narrations differed in dating the event. In fact, there were many campaigns of conquest in Armenia, and Ḥudhayfah himself participated in three of them. ¹⁰³

The first date mentioned, as narrated by Abū Mikhnaf, is 24 A.H.¹⁰⁴ Then al Țabarī states that Ḥudhayfah was directed to the conquest of *Al Bāb* (Darband) as a help to 'Abd al Raḥmān Ibn Rabī'ā in the year 30/650.¹⁰⁵ Al Ṭabarī, who mentions some small details here and in other places, does not mention anything about the *maṣāḥif*. However, Ibn al Athīr states that Hudhayfah, when he returned after this conquest, told 'Uthmān what he had witnessed in the battlefield among the *Qurrā'*. Consequently, 'Uthmān consulted the Companions, who agreed with him to compile the Qur'an.¹⁰⁶ Two years later (32/650), Ḥudhayfah was in that region, leading the people of Kūfah.¹⁰⁷ In conclusion, the first narration of Abū Mikhnaf does not seem to be authentic. Although al Balādhurī (279/892) on one occasion quotes it, in his opinion it is not the best one. The other versions he gives do not suggest any fixed date,¹⁰⁸ although they correspond with the events detailed in the conquest of the year 30/650, as mentioned in other sources.¹⁰⁹

^{94.} Al Maṣāḥif, 13-18.

^{95.} Ghāyat al Nihāyah, 1:459.

^{96.} Al Iṣābah, 2:369; Tahdhīb, 6:28. al 'Asqalānī attributes to Abū Nu'aym and others the year 32 A.H., and the year 33 A.H. to Yaḥyā Ibn Bukayr. See Tahdhīb al Tahdhīh, as above.

^{97.} Tarīkh al Ţabarī, 4:308.

^{98.} Ansāb al Ashrāf, 1:526.

^{99.} Al Riyād al Mustatāba, 190-92.

^{100.} Al Ma'ārif, 109.

^{101.} Tarīkh al Islām, 3:104.

^{102.} Al Istī'āb, 2:324.

^{103.} Tārīkh al Tabarī, 4:307.

^{104.} Ibid. Al Ţabarī adds that others place the event in 26 A.H. Ibn al Athīr states that it was in 25 A.H.; Al Kāmil, 3:83.

^{105.} Tarīkh al Ţabarī, 4:281.

^{106.} Al Kāmil, 3:111-12.

^{107.} Tārīkh al Ṭabarī, 4:306-07; Al Kāmil, 3:131-33.

^{108.} Futūḥ al Buldān, 277-88.

^{109.} Tārīkh al Ṭabarī, 4:306-07; Al Kāmil, 3:131-33.

Leaving aside the issues raised by the death of Ibn Mas'ūd in the year 32 A.H., it is reasonable to assume the compilation took place in the year 30/650, which is suggested by Ibn al Athūr,¹¹⁰ supported by Ibn al Jazarī,¹¹¹ and followed by some other scholars.¹¹²

The Validity of Abū Bakr's Compilation

Some scholars argue that 'Umar was the first to compile the Qur'an. In support of this they quote an account given by Ibn Sa'd (230/844). It is reported also that 'Umar asked about a verse, and when he was informed that it had been preserved in the memory of a certain man who was killed on the day of Yamāmah, he ordered the Qur'an to be compiled in one muṣḥaf. He asked every person who had learned anything from the Prophet to bring it, and he would accept only what two witnesses testified to. Its Furthermore, it is argued that if Abū Bakr had participated in the compilation, it would have become an official muṣḥaf for the state, which it was not. (If it were, it would not have been transferred to Ḥafṣah, daughter of 'Umar, but would have passed into the custody of 'Uthmān).

In addition, it is said that Abū Bakr did not live after the Battle of Yamāmah for more than fifteen months, which, it is argued, was not enough time for a great task like the compilation of the Qur'an. Moreover, there was not such a considerable number of great *Qurrā'* killed on this occasion that it might be feared that some parts of the Qur'an would be lost by their death.¹¹⁷ Furthermore, as discussed above, the Qur'an was committed to writing during the lifetime of the Prophet.¹¹⁸

However, in answer to these arguments it could be said that 'Umar's role was to suggest to Abū Bakr the compiling of the Qur'an in one book and to assist him in this. According to the hadith discussed above, he persuaded both Abū Bakr and Zayd Ibn Thābit and supervised the work of compilation. The muṣḥaf then came into 'Umar's custody after he became khalīfah and remained with him until his death, when it was transferred

^{110.} Al Kāmil, 3:111-12.

^{111.} Al Nashr, 1:7.

^{112.} See p. 34 above.

^{113.} Al Tabagāt al Kubrā, 3:2.

^{114.} Itgān, 1:166.

^{115.} Ibid.

Jeffery, Concluding Essay, 14; 'Abd al Qădir, Nazrah' Āmmah fi Tārīkh al Fiqh al Islāmī, 90-91.

^{117.} Concluding Essay, 14-15.

^{118. &#}x27;Abd al Qadir, Nazrah 'Ammah fi Tarikh al Figh al Islami, 90-91.

to his daughter Hafsah, his executor. This does not mean that it was 'Umar's personal copy, because he died before the succession of the next khalīfah.

The time frame is quite reasonable for the compilation of the Qur'an, especially if we take into account the fact that Zayd was experienced in the compilation of the Qur'an. He not only recorded the revelation for the Prophet, but many people rallied round to help him in the task (including the Companions who had memorized the Qur'an).¹¹⁹

Furthermore, the lists of *Qurrā'* killed at the Battle of Yamāmah include many learned men like Sālim (the *mawlā* of Abū Ḥudhayfah), Thābit Ibn Qays, Ibn al Shammās, Zayd Ibn al Khaṭṭāb, Abū Dujanah Simāk Ibn Kharshah, and many others.¹²⁰ Ibn Kathīr counted over fifty of them.¹²¹

Even if the number were not so great, there was still fear of missing more learned $Qurr\bar{a}'$, since further battles would inevitably cause the death of others, while there was always the danger that the younger $Qurr\bar{a}'$ might fail to preserve some part of the revelation.

Even though the Qur'an may have existed in written form during the Prophet's lifetime, this would not have allayed the fear, since it was not compiled in a book form, but was written on a variety of materials.¹²²

Finally the *riwāyah*s of Ibn Sa'd¹²³ and al Suyūū¹²⁴ do not contradict that of al Bukhārī,¹²⁵ which attributes the compilation to Abū Bakr, if we consider that 'Umar was the one who suggested it to Abū Bakr, and that he helped Zayd Ibn Thābit and supervised the compilation.¹²⁶

Dating the Compilation during Abū Bakr's Reign

The compilation of the Qur'an during the reign of Abū Bakr took place after the Battle of Yamāmah. 127 This is said to have been in 11 A.H. 128

^{119.} Bukhārī, 6:477.

^{120.} Al Bidāyah wa al Nihāyah, 6:334-40.

^{121.} Ibid. See also p. 48 below.

^{122.} Al Burhān fī 'Ulūm al Qur'ān, 1:238.

^{123.} Al Țabagăt al Kubrā, 3:2.

^{124.} Itgān, 1:166.

^{125.} Bukhārī, 6:476-77.

^{126.} Ibid. Ibn Abū Dāwūd in his Al Maṣāḥif, 6, states that Abū Bakr appointed 'Umar and Zayd Ibn Thābit to compile the Qur'an and told them to sit in front of the mosque and to write down what two witnesses testified to be part of the Qur'an. This version is said to be not authentic (Itqān, 1:167). Jeffery in his Concluding Essay, 14, argues that this contradiction indicates that Abū Bakr did not compile any official muṣḥaf, but according to the authentic tradition of Bukhārī, as we have seen, the suggestion came from 'Umar, who persuaded Abū Bakr.

^{127.} Bukhārī, 6:477.

^{128.} Tārīkh al Ţabarī, 3:281-301.

Ibn Kathīr quotes Ibn Qāni' as saying that it was at the end of that year.¹²⁹ This date is supported by Ibn Hazm, who states that the conquest of Yamāmah was seven months and six days later, after the installation of Abū Bakr.¹³⁰ Some other scholars mention that it was in 12 A.H. Ibn Kathīr attributes this date to a group of biographers and chroniclers.¹³¹ He tries to reconcile these opinions by suggesting that the conquest began in 11 A.H., and ended in 12 A.H.,¹³² but finally opts for the year 12 A.H., because this date, according to him, is the most widely accepted.¹³³

Based on the above discussion, it is difficult to accept the argument of researchers who doubt the compilation of Abū Bakr on the grounds that no agreement exists on the date of Yamāmah (i.e., whether it was in the eleventh or twelfth year of the Hijrah).¹³⁴

The Number of Qurra' Slain

An estimated six hundred¹³⁵ to seven hundred Muslims were slain at Yamāmah.¹³⁶ Al Ṭabarī states that among them were over three hundred men of the *Muhājirūn* and *Anṣār*,¹³⁷ while Ibn Kathīr quotes Khalīfah Ibn Khayyāṭ (240/854) as having said that four hundred and fifty Muslims were slain, among them fifty from the *Muhājirūn* and *Anṣār*.¹³⁸

In the opinion of some scholars, all seven hundred men slain were $Qurr\bar{a}'$, while others consider the number seventy to be correct. However, it is certain that a considerable number of $Qurr\bar{a}'$ were slain at Yamāmah. As 'Umar is reported to have said: "Casualties were heavy among the $Qurr\bar{a}'$ of the Qur'an on the day of the Battle of Yamāmah."

Before leaving the subject of the compilations of Abū Bakr and 'Uthmān, we should consider Burton's view that neither of these compilations took place.¹⁴¹ This view is based on the opinion that neither event is logically necessary in order to account for the present-day *muṣḥaf*. However, to maintain this theory in practice means to deny the validity of such an immense number of accounts to the contrary that Burton's view is

^{129.} Al Bidāyah wa al Nihāyah, 6:326.

^{130.} Jumal Futûh al Islām, 341.

^{131.} Al Bidāyah wa al Nihāyah, 6:226.

^{132.} Ibid.

^{133.} Ibid., 332.

^{134.} Concluding Essay, 14.

^{135.} Tārīkh al Ṭabarī, 3:296.

^{136.} Qurtubī, 1:50.

^{137.} Tārīkh al Ţabarī, 3:296.

^{138.} Al Bidāyah wa al Nihāyah, 6:340.

^{139.} Ourtubī, 1: 50.

^{140.} Bukhārī, 6:477.

^{141.} Burton, The Collection of the Our'an, 239.

surely untenable. In addition, the account given here, which is based on a consideration of the sources, provides a logical and inherently reasonable account of a historical process.

The Arrangement of the Surahs

The surahs of the Qur'an were not arranged chronologically as they were revealed. They were arranged differently. For instance, the second surah (Surat al Baqarah) was revealed in Madīnah after the Hijrah, while the ninety-sixth surah (Sūrat al 'Alaq) was the first surah revealed in Makkah. 142 If the arrangement of the muṣḥaf were chronological, Sūrat al 'Alaq would have been the first surah in the muṣḥaf. There are also some verses revealed in Madīnah that were put in Makkan surahs. 143 However, all scholars agree that the verses were arranged and put in their order according to the revelation. 144

The scholars disagree as to whether the surahs were arranged according to the revelation (tawqīf) or through the endeavor of the Companions (ijtihad). Some scholars argue that the surahs were arranged by the Companions, because of the different arrangements of their personal maṣāḥif. It is said that the muṣḥaf of 'Alī was arranged chronologically, while the muṣḥaf of Ibn Mas'ūd began with Surat al Baqarah, then Surat al Nisā', then Surat Āl 'Imrān, etc. 145

Others say that ijtihad took place only in limited areas. They mean by this that the Qur'an, in its arrangement, is divided into four categories according to the length of the surahs (i.e., al Tiwāl, al Mi'īn, al Mathānī and al Mufaṣṣal). 146 In their opinion ijtihad was only in the arrangement of the surahs of each category; all agreed about the order and contents of these four categories. 147

Others are of the opinion that all surahs were arranged according to the revelation, except for surahs 7 and 9. In this case, they rely on the following hadith: "Uthmān was asked why $S\bar{u}rat\ al\ Tawbah$ is put after $S\bar{u}rat\ al\ Anf\bar{a}l$, and why there is no basmalah between them. He replied that it was because their theme is one, and because the Prophet passed away without informing them where to put the basmalah." 148

^{142.} Al Zuhrī, Kitāb Tanzīl al Qur'ān, 23.

^{143.} Itaān, 1:38-47; Qurtubī, 1:61; Ibn Taymiyyah, Daqā'iq al Tafsīr, 1:13.

^{144.} More discussion will be forthcoming on pp. 45-47 in this chapter.

^{145.} Qurtubī, 1:59; Al Burhān, 1:256; Itqān, 1:176; Asrār Tartīb al Qur'ān, 68.

^{146.} Itgān, 1:179-80.

^{147.} Al Burhān, 1:237; Itgān, 1:176.

^{148.} Al Musnad, 1:398-99.

This opinion has been refuted on the grounds that much evidence indicates that the surahs are arranged according to revelation without a single exception. Here is some of the evidence as it has been reported in books of the *sunan*.

- 1. In Madīnah, a delegation came to the Prophet and one in the group, Abū Aws, reported the Prophet as having said: "I did not want to come without completing the parts of the Qur'an I recite daily."
 - They asked the Companions: "How do you divide the Qur'an for the recitation?" They replied: "We divide them three surahs, five surahs, seven surahs, nine surahs, eleven surahs, thirteen surahs, and the part of al Mufassal from Sūrat al Qāf to the end." 149
- Zayd Ibn Thābit, the scribe of the revelation, said: "We were compiling and arranging the Qur'an from the fragments, in front of Allah's Apostle."
- 3. The basmalah was a sign for the sealing of the surahs. Ibn 'Abbās stated that the Prophet did not know that a surah had been sealed until the revelation came to him with "In the name of God, Most Gracious, Most Merciful"; when it was revealed he knew that the surah was sealed. 151

Al Nisaburi (828/1424) in his *Tafsīr* reports that whenever the Prophet received a surah, he asked the scribe to put it in its place.¹⁵²

In light of the above, the compilation during the reign of Abū Bakr can only have consisted of compiling it into one book, not of arranging the surahs.¹⁵³ The same applies to the compilation of 'Uthmān. As Ibn al Bāqillārū states:

The whole Qur'an, whose compilation and writing Allah commanded, excluding the abrogated verses, is what is contained in this *muṣḥaf* (of 'Uthmān). It is the same arrangement and style revealed to the Prophet in the very same manner of verses and surahs with no difference in word order, and the Ummah has received from the Prophet the arrangement of every verse and surah, and their places, as they have received the recitation of the Qur'an.¹⁵⁴

Referring to the verse "It is for us to collect it and to promulgate it" (75:17), Ibn Hazm concludes that the Qur'an in all arrangements of its let-

^{149.} Tartīb Musnad Aḥmad Ibn Ḥanbal, 18:29; Sunan Abī Dāwūd, 2:114-16.

^{150.} Al Ḥākim, 2:229; Al Murshid, 44, 61; Itqān, 1:172; c.f. Tartīb Musnad, 18:30.

Sunan Abī Dawūd, 1:291; Al Ḥākim, 1:231; Sharḥ al Sunnah, 4:522; Al Murshid al Wajīz,
 35.

^{152.} Gharā'ib al Qur'ān wa Raghā'ib al Furqān, 1:32.

^{153.} Sharh al Sunnah, 4:502,

^{154.} Al Murshid al Wajīz, 45; Itgān, 1:175.

ters, words, verses, and surahs is as revealed by Allah to his Prophet, who taught the people accordingly. Thus, no one can change anything.¹⁵⁵

Some scholars say that the arrangement of the surahs of the Qur'an in the *mushaf* has features that prove that it is *tawqīf*. For example:

- 1. the arrangement according to the beginning of the surahs with letters like al Ḥawāmīm (seven surahs begin with Ḥāmīm [surahs 40-46]);
- 2. the agreement of the beginning of a surah with the end of its predecessor; for example, the end of surah 1 and the beginning of surah 2;
- al Wazn fi al Lafz (similarities of verse endings or fawāṣil); i.e., the end of surah 111 and the beginning of surah 112, which ends in aḥad; and
- 4. the similarity between surahs in general, like surahs 93 and 94.156

The differences among the *maṣāḥif* of the Companions are explained as being because they were personal copies. If it so happened that during the absence of one of them a surah (or more) was revealed, he would write it whenever it seemed convenient to him.¹⁵⁷

We do not know about any of these *maṣāḥif* through an authentic chain, and nothing which is said about them should be accepted as a fact. Various contradictory accounts are given of the order of surahs in various *maṣāḥif*, ¹⁵⁸ but in any case they do not correspond to the version of the final revelation. ¹⁵⁹

Finally, the hadith that ascribes to 'Uthmān the arrangement of surahs 8 and 9 is said to lack authenticity and has been criticized regarding its chain and its text. The chain includes a narrator, Yazīd al Fārisī, who is unknown and regarded as weak by Bukhārī and Tirmidhī. The text (matn) of the hadith contradicts the authentic reports.

Ahmad Shākir argues: "This hadith is very weak and in fact has no basis in its *isnad*. In addition, its text throws doubts on the *basmalah* at the beginning of surahs, as though 'Uthmān had added to them or omitted some part of them as he liked, veneration be to him." ¹⁶¹

Muhammad Rashīd Ridā adopted the same opinion before Shākir, stating that a hadith narrated just by a single man was not accepted as regards the arrangement of the Qur'an, for which successive narration

^{155.} Ibn Hazm, Al Ihkām fī Usūl al Ahkām, 4:93.

^{156.} Al Burhān, 1:260; Asrār Tartīb al Qur'ān, 71.

^{157.} Muaaddimatān, 32; Manāhil, 1:248-49.

^{158.} Al Fihrist, 29-30.

^{159.} Qurtubī, 1:60.

^{160.} Bulūgh al Amānī, 18:155.

^{161.} Musnad. 1:329-30.

was necessary. 162 Elsewhere Rashīd Riḍā says: "An account narrated by a man like this, which is unique to him, is not sound and should not be accepted for the arrangement of the Qur'an which is transmitted with tawātur." He also says that it is impossible that all surahs were arranged except these two surahs. All authorities state that the Prophet and his Companions recited surahs of the Qur'an in their order in and out of the prayers. 164

Rashīd Ridā refers to the following hadith: "The Prophet used to recite the whole Qur'an to Jibrīl and Jibrīl to him during Ramadān once every year, but in the last Ramadān before the Prophet passed away he recited it twice to Jibrīl and Jibrīl to him." He argues that the order of these two surahs (8 and 9) must have been well known at that time. It is an accepted principle in the science of the hadith that an isolated hadith is not accepted if it contradicts the verdict of reason and the verdict of the Qur'an. It

Furthermore, Mālik (179/795) is reported to have said: "The Qur'an was but compiled according to the revelation, as they (the Companions) heard it from the Prophet." Al Qurtubī (671/1272) argues that the arrangement of surahs as a written document is tawqīf, but the readers are allowed to recite differently from the order of the muṣḥaf. Furthermore, al Qurtubī concludes that the order of surahs is like that of verses; all have come to us from the Prophet as they were revealed to him from Allah. If someone were to change the order of any surah, it would be like changing the structure of the verses, letters, and words. 170

Al Hārith al Muḥāsibī (243/857) is reported to have said that the compilation of the Qur'an was not invented, for the Prophet commanded his Companions to write it down. But it was written on various materials: riqa' (pieces of cloth), aktāf (shoulder-blades), and 'usub (palm branches stripped of their leaves).

Abū Bakr simply ordered the Qur'an to be rewritten and to be assembled in one place. Different writings were found in the house of the

^{162.} Al Manār, 9:585; Musnad, 1:330.

^{163.} Hāshiyah on Faḍā'il al Qur'ān, 12; Musnad, 1:330.

^{164.} Al Manār, 9:585. Individual surahs are referred to repeatedly by name in the hadith. Thus, a cursory inspection of a single chapter of a single source (Sunan Ibn Mājah, 2:120-39) reveals no less than twenty-six such references.

^{165.} Bukhārī, 6:485-86.

^{166.} Faḍā'il al Qur'ān, 12.

^{167.} Al Khatīb, Al Kifāyah fī 'Ilm al Riwāyah, 432.

^{168.} Ibn Kathīr, Fadā'il al Qur'ān, 25.

^{169.} Qurtubī, Al Jāmi' li Aḥkām al Qur'ān, 1:53.

^{170.} Al Jāmi' li Ahkām al Our'ān, 1:60.

Prophet (peace be upon him) containing the Qur'an. These were arranged and tied together by a cord to ensure that none were lost.¹⁷¹

Al Suyūtī devoted a whole book to this subject, *Tanāsuq al Durar* fī *Tanāsub al Suwar*,¹⁷² in which the subject is treated thoroughly and studied linguistically and rhetorically¹⁷³ to prove the succession of the verses and surahs through all 114 surahs of the Qur'an.

The Compilation and Arrangement of Verses in Their Surahs

The order of verses in the different surahs is agreed to have been ordained by revelation and was not left to the Prophet or his Companions.¹⁷⁴ This can be supported by the following evidence. Ibn al Zubayr said to 'Uthmān: "This verse, which is in *Sūrat al Baqarah*, 'Those who die and leave wives behind . . . without turning them out,' has been abrogated by another verse. Why then do you write it (in the Qur'an)? 'Uthmān said, 'Leave it (where it is), O son of my brother, for I will not shift anything of it (i.e., the Qur'an) from its original position.'"¹⁷⁵

The surahs were revealed on specific occasions, and the verses served to answer a question or inquiry, and Jibrīl would tell the Prophet where to put them.¹⁷⁶ The Prophet is reported to have said: "Jibrīl came to me and commanded me to put this verse here in this surah (16:90): 'God commands justice, the doing of good and liberality to kith and kin '"

Ibn 'Abbās is reported to have said that the last verse revealed in the Qur'an is "And fear the day when ye shall be brought back to God. Then shall every soul be paid what it has earned and none shall be dealt with unjustly" (2:281) and then that Jibrīl said to the Prophet, "Put it after verse 280 of Sūrat al Bagarah." 177

'Umar is reported to have said: "I have not asked the Prophet about anything more than I asked him about al kalālah, 178 to the extent that he

^{171.} Al Burhān fī 'Ulūm al Qur'ān, 1:238.

^{172.} Published with a different title: Asrār Tartīb al Qur'ān, ed. 'Abd al Qādir Ahmad 'Aṭā', 2nd ed. (Cairo 1398/1978). He also composed a short treatise on this subject entitled Marāṣid al Maṭāli' fī Tanāṣub al Maṭāli' wa al Maṭāli', Chester Beatty Library, Dublin, MS.S112, 114-17.

^{173.} See, for instance, Ḥijāzī, Al Waḥdah al Mawdir'iyyah fi al Qur'ān al Karīm; al Qāsim, Al l'jāz al Bayānī fī Tartīb Āyāt al Qur'ān al Karīm wa Suwarih.

^{174.} Itqān, 1:172; Muir, The Corân, 37, says there were indeed recognized surahs or chapters.

^{175.} Bukhärī, 6:46.

^{176.} Qurțubī, 1: 60.

^{177.} Al Mabānī, 41; Qurţubī, 1:60-61.

^{178.} One who dies without leaving a son or a father. See Qurtubī, 5:28-29, 5:76-78.

pointed his finger at my chest and said to me, 'Be satisfied with the verse revealed in summer, which is in the end of $S\bar{u}rat\ al\ Nisa$.'"¹⁷⁹

A certain person asked the Prophet which verse would bring good to him and his people and was told: "The end of *Sūrat al Baqarah*, for it is one of the treasures of God's mercy from under His Throne which He gave to His people, and there is no good in this world and the next which it does not include." ¹⁸⁰

The Prophet would teach his Companions the Qur'an. If he became busy, he asked one of his learned Companions to teach it. 'Ubādah Ibn al Ṣāmit is reported to have said: "When the Prophet became busy and someone migrated to him, he used to ask one of us to teach him the Qur'an." ¹⁸¹

The Prophet would also send teachers to distant places to teach the Qur'an. On one occasion, "he sent Mu'ādh and Abū Mūsā to Yemen and commanded them to teach the people the Qur'an." 182

One of the Followers is reported to have said:

The Companions who used to teach them the Qur'an said that they learned the Qur'an from the Prophet, ten verses, and they did not learn another unit of ten verses until they understood their meaning and fulfilled their requirements.¹⁸³

However, the Qur'an itself indicates that each surah has its own internal arrangement. Thus Qur'an 11:13 challenges the Arabs in the Makkan period:

Or they may say, "He forged it." Say, "Then bring ten surahs forged, like unto it, and call (to your aid) whomsoever you can, other than God, if you speak the truth."

The challenge of the Qur'an continued in the Madinan period:

And if you are in doubt as to what we have revealed from time to time to our servant, then produce a surah like thereunto; and call your witnesses or helpers (if there are any) besides God, if your (doubts) are true. (2:23)

^{179.} Musnad, 1:231; Itqān, 1:173.

^{180.} Mishkāt al Masābīh (English Trans.), 2:458.

^{181.} Tartīb al Musnad, 18:9.

^{182.} Ibid., 18:8.

^{183.} Ibid, 18:9.

The Prophet also recited surahs in the prayers among his Companions, which indicates that they have a fixed revealed order (tawqīf). Furthermore, al Suyūṭī points out, it would have been impossible for the Companions to arrange the verses in an order different from the one they heard the Prophet use in his recitation, which is a strong argument for tawqīf. Al Suyūṭī quotes Ibn Ḥajar al 'Asqalānī, Makkī Ibn Abī Ṭālib al Qaysī, Ibn al Bāqillanī, Mālik Ibn Anas, al Bayhaqī, and Ibn al Ḥaṣṣār as supporting him on the succession of verses in the different surahs. 185

The Problem of Missing Verses

Zayd Ibn Thābit is quoted as saying of the compilation of Abū Bakr:

I started looking for the Qur'an and collecting it from (what was written on) palm stalks, thin white stones, and also from the men who knew it by heart, till I found the last verse of *Sūrat al Tawbah* (repentance) with Abū Khuzaymah al Anṣārī and I did not find it with anybody other than him. The verse is: "Now has come unto you a Messenger from amongst yourselves. It grieves him that you should receive any injury or difficulty . . . (till the end of *Barā'ah*)." (9:128-29)¹⁸⁶

Abū Khuzaymah was the only one who had kept this verse in a written form, for there were many *Qurrā'* who had committed the whole Qur'an to memory.¹⁸⁷ For instance, when Zayd Ibn Thābit had reached the end of "Then they turn aside: God hath turned their hearts (from the light) for they are a people that understood not" (9:127), Ubayy Ibn Ka'b informed him that the Prophet had taught him two verses after that and recited verses 9:128-29:

Now has come unto you a Messenger from amongst yourselves. It grieves him that you should receive any injury or difficulty: ardently anxious is he over you: to the believers is he most kind and merciful. But if they turn away, say: "God suffices me: there is no god but He, on Him is my trust—He the Lord of the Throne (of Glory) Supreme.

Ubayy added that this was the last verse of the Qur'an to be revealed. 188

^{184.} Itgān, 1:174.

^{185.} Itgān, 1:172-76.

^{186.} Bukhārī, 6:48. The translation was taken from Yūsuf 'Alī with modification.

^{187.} Fath al Bārī, 9:16: Itgān, 1:101.

^{188.} Al Maṣāḥif, 9; Muqaddimatān, 35.

In another version it is reported that Zayd said:

A verse from Sūrat al Aḥzāb was missed by me when we copied the Qur'an, and I used to hear Allah's Apostle (peace be upon him) reciting it. So we searched for it and found it with Khuzaymah Ibn Thābit al Anṣārī. (That verse was 33:23: "Among the believers are men who have been true in their covenant with God.") We then added it to its surah in the muṣḥaf. 189

The same theory advanced with respect to the missing verses of $S\bar{u}rat$ al Tawbah can be applied here, with the addition that Zayd himself had committed this verse to memory, as clearly stated by him in this account.

It has been argued that this episode of the missing verse of *Sūrat al Ahzāb* took place during the compilation of 'Uthmān.¹⁹⁰ Nevertheless, Ibn Kathīr asserts that the missing of verse 33:23 definitely occurred during the compilation of Abū Bakr, because it is confirmed by another version of the same tradition that is regarded as authentic.¹⁹¹

A version is narrated by Ibn Abī Dāwūd¹⁹² in which Khuzaymah Ibn Thābit came with these two verses from the end of Sūrat al Tawbah, and 'Umar said that if they had been three verses he would have made them a surah. Then he suggested that he should decide on a surah and annex them to it. Consequently, they were put at the end of surah 9. ¹⁹³ This version, however, is said to lack authenticity, for it has three problems in its isnād, the text (matn) contradicts successive and sound reports that state that the Prophet taught his Companions the Qur'an and the order of verses and surahs. In addition, this version states that Abū Khuzaymah put the two verses at the end of Sūrat al Tawbah, though it is agreed unanimously that he was not one of the scribes who participated in compiling the Qur'an. ¹⁹⁴ Indeed, Ibn Abī Dāwūd himself narrates in the same book, indeed on the same page, another version that contradicts the above, which states that Ubayy Ibn Ka'b reported that when they compiled the Qur'an, the scribes thought that 9:127 was the end of a surah. Then he

^{189.} Fath al Bārī, 9:11; Bukhārī, 6:479-80; Mishkāt al Maṣābiḥ, 2:470, English translation by James Robson.

^{190.} Fath al Bārī, 9:21.

^{191.} Faḍā'il al Qur'ān, 15.

^{192.} C.f. Musnad, 3:163-64.

^{193.} Al Maṣāḥif, 30. Ibn Abī Dāwūd in another version related this event to 'Uthmān, see p. 31, who suggested to seal the last revealed surah with these two verses.

^{194.} Al Bannā, Bulūgh al Amānī, 18:173. Aḥmad Shākir has also refuted this version on the grounds that it is munkar shādhdh in contradiction to the Mutawātir. See Musnad, 3:163-64.

informed them: "The Prophet taught me two verses after this, 'Verily has come unto you a Messenger '" 195

In support of the latter hadith, there is a hadith in *Al Musnad* on the authority of al Barā', who is reported to have said: "The last surah revealed completely to the Prophet is *Sūrat Barā'ah*." Thus, it is a fact that the end of this surah was as well known to the Companions as the beginning and the body of the surah. Nevertheless, Ubayy is reported to have said that those two verses were the last revealed verses. They were revealed exactly in the year 9 A.H., and the Prophet sent 'Alī with this surah to recite it and read it in the Hajj congregation at Makkah. 198

Furthermore, al Nasā'ī (303/915), in his Fadā'il al Qur'ān, reported the hadith narrated by Zayd Ibn Thābit about the compilation of the Qur'an during the time of Abū Bakr and did not mention the missing two verses of Surat al Tawbah. 199 Ibn Hazm (456/1063) accepts the validity of the hadith of Zayd that he found the two verses with Khuzaymah, but emphasizes that this refers only to the written form, as it had been memorized by Zayd himself. 200 According to al Qurtubī, the verses were substantiated by Khuzaymah but with the consensus of the Companions. 201 Ibn al Bāqillānī, on the other hand, refutes the validity of this addition to this hadith and states that the Qur'an was recorded in written form without any exception. 202

In the light of all the above accounts, the conclusion is that the verses were arranged and put in their order without exception.

The Meaning of the Term Jam' al Qur'ān

The word jama'a in the phrase jama'a al Qur'ān has two meanings. One meaning is "to memorize," which occurs in the Qur'an in this sense in the phrase inna 'alaynā jam'ahū wa qur'ānahū.²⁰³ The expression jāmi' al Qur'ān and its plural, jummā' al 'Qur'ān, are likewise used to mean "a man or people who commit the whole book to their memories." Thus, 'Abd Allāh Ibn 'Amr is reported to have said, "Jama'tu al Qur'ān

^{195.} Al Maṣāḥif 9:128-29; Al Murshid al Wajīz, 56; Tartīb al Musnad, 18:173. The author of Bulūgh al Amānī, 18:54-55, and 173-74, accepts this version as a sound hadith accepted by al Ḥākim.

^{196.} Tartīb al Musnad, 18:54.

^{197.} Ibid., 174. The report is regarded as sound. See Bulugh al Amani, 174-75.

^{198.} Tartīb al Musnad, 18:156-58.

^{199.} Fadā'il al Qur'ān, 63.

^{200.} Ibn Hazm, al Ihkām fī Usūl al Ahkām, 6:832.

^{201.} Qurtubī, Tafsīr, 1:56.

^{202.} Nukat al Intisār, 331.

^{203. 75:17.}

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fa qara'tu bi hi fi kulli laylah . . ."²⁰⁴ meaning, "I have committed the Qur'an to memory and recite the (whole) Qur'an every night . . ." In this respect, Ibn Sīrīn is reported as having said that 'Uthmān memorized the Qur'an during the lifetime of the Prophet; i.e., "Jama'a 'Uthmān al Qur'ān 'alā 'ahd Rasūl Allāh ṣalla Allāh 'alayh wa sallam, yaqūlu: hafīzahu."²⁰⁵

The other meaning of the word jama'a is "to collect and write down." We find this in such expressions as "Abū Bakr awwal man jama'a al Qur'ān bayn al lawḥayn," meaning "Abu Bakr was the first to compile the Qur'an in a written form, as a book (between two boards)."

Many Companions committed the whole Qur'an to memory.²⁰⁷ This study has revealed more than thirty of them.²⁰⁸ In addition, hundreds of Companions memorized some parts and surahs.²⁰⁹

The many reasons for the Companions to memorize the whole Qur'an during the lifetime of the Prophet included the excellence of the language of the Qur'an for the Arabs²¹⁰ and the use of the Qur'an for prayers and private and collective recitations.²¹¹

The Qur'an also served as a book of sharī'ah (law) and of social, business, and state affairs.

The Prophet urged the Companions to recite the Qur'an collectively and privately, especially in night prayers during the month of Ramaḍān, and to memorize some verses, surahs, or the whole Qur'an. ²¹² Those who have memorized the Qur'an are highly honored and rewarded in the hereafter. ²¹³

Also the Arabs' memory, as Muir states, was tenacious.²¹⁴ Some Companions went to the extreme of reciting the whole book in one night. However, when the Prophet was informed, he asked them not to seal the Qur'an in less than three days or a week.²¹⁵

^{204.} Al Nasă'i, Fadā'il al Qur'ān, 101.

^{205.} Al Balādhurī, Ansāb al Ashrāf, part IV, 1:489.

^{206.} Kitāb al Maṣāḥif, 5.

^{207.} Ma'rifat al Qurrā' al Kibār, 29-39; Itgān, 1:201-04.

^{208.} These are those whom we know by name; we have no precise information about anonymous *Qurrā'*, although on one occasion seventy of them are said to have been killed, as early as 5 A.H. See *Bukhārī*, 5:287-88.

^{209.} Itgān, 1:200.

^{210.} Ibn al Bāqillānī, l'jāz al Qur'ān, 33-50.

^{211.} Sharh al Sunnah, 4:19-31; al Nasă7, 2:120-39.

^{212.} Sharh al Sunnah, 4:427-99.

^{213.} Ibid., 427-36.

^{214.} The Corân, 38.

^{215.} Al Musnad, 10:43; al Nasā'ī, Faḍā'il al Qur'ān, 101-03.

On the other hand, Anas Ibn Mālik is reported as having said that only four persons committed the Qur'an to memory at the time of the Prophet. Although many interpretations of this statement have been offered, the only reasonable one is that he meant among his tribe of Khazraj, since he was boasting of their achievements compared to the other branch of the Ansār (i.e., Aws). 217

Thus, *Jummā' al Qur'ān* are those who have memorized the Qur'an and recite it by heart. The words *Ḥuffaz* and *Qurrā'* have exactly the same meaning.²¹⁸

Shaban²¹⁹ maintains that the *Qurrā'* refer to *Ahl al Qura* (villagers) rather than readers of the Qur'an. However, this hypothesis seems to be groundless since all standard references indicate that it is the readers who are being referred to. Furthermore, no lexicographical source gives *qurra'* as a derivation of the word *qaryah*; the only accepted plural form is *qarawiyyūn*.

However, as mentioned earlier the Prophet had numerous scribes who took down the revelation to aid memorization.²²⁰

The Words Ṣaḥīfah and Muṣḥaf and Their Origins

The word saḥīfah (pl. suḥuf and saḥā'if), as al Jawharī states, means "a book," as it is found in Qur'an 87:18-19: "And this is in the book of earliest (Revelations), the book of Abraham and Moses." It means the book revealed to them.²²¹

The words muṣḥaf, miṣḥaf, or maṣḥaf mean "a (book) containing written sheets between two covers." Al Azhari is reported to have said: "It is called muṣḥaf because it was made a container of written sheets between two covers." 222

There is a hadith that proves that the Prophet used the word *muṣḥaf* in reference to the written form of the Qur'an. 'Abd Allāh Ibn 'Amr Ibn al 'Āṣ supports this fact by relating that a man came to the Prophet and said to him, "This son of mine reads the *muṣḥaf* in the daytime. . ."²²³ Indeed, in another version, the Prophet is reported as having forbidden travel with a

^{216.} Bukhārī, 6:488.

^{217.} Nukat al Intisār, 70-76; Fath al Bārī, 9:46-54.

^{218.} Al Baghawī in his book Sharh al Sunnah, vol. IV, p. 428, says: "Kull Shay' in Jama'tahu fa-qad qara'tahu."

^{219.} M. A. Shaban, Islamic History: A New Interpretation I, 23, 50-51.

^{220.} See pp. 25-27 of this study.

^{221.} Lisān al 'Arab, 9:186.

^{222.} Ibid.

^{223,} Musnad, 10:110-11.

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mushaf to the land of the enemy, lest the enemy take it (and destroy or dishonor it).224

Thus the word muṣḥaf was known to the Muslims, which indicates that they had no need to borrow or invent it after the Prophet's death. In fact, the word was known to the Arabs even before Islam and is found in a verse of the pre-Islamic poet Imru' al Qays: Atat ḥijajun ba'dī 'alayhā fa aṣbaḥat ka khaṭṭi zabūrin fī maṣāḥif ruhbān (Some years elapsed since my presence, and it became like the writing of psalms in the maṣāḥif of monks).²²⁵

The word *muṣḥaf* is believed to be of Ethiopian origin, ²²⁶ and that it was brought back by the Muslims who emigrated to Ethiopia, and that Ibn Mas'ūd suggested this name for the compilation of Abū Bakr. ²²⁷

However, as stated earlier, the word muṣḥaf, whether or not of Ethiopian origin, was in the Arabic vocabulary long before. It is unlikely that Ibn Mas'ūd, who took no part in the compilation, should be involved in this way. In short, this account cannot be accepted. It is maintained also that the word muṣḥaf does not necessarily pertain to the entire text of the Qur'an but can also refer to a portion of it. 228 However, in the references mentioned above, the entire text is referred to. Some personal codices (manuscripts and fragments) may not have included the entire text, but the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif, based upon the first compilation, included the entire Qur'an without any exception.

Theory of Naskh

Most scholars agree on the existence of *naskh* in the Qur'an. However, they differ on many points, particularly about the meaning and modes of *naskh* and their examples.²²⁹

They all agree²³⁰ on the first mode, namely, *naskh al hukm wa baqā' al tilāwah* (the abrogation of the ruling and keeping its recitation), for example, 2:240, which is said to have been abrograted by 2:234.²³¹

The second mode of *naskh* discussed is *naskh* al hukm wa al tilāwah (abrogration of the ruling and its recitation). It is said that some verses and

^{224,} Bukhārī, 4:146.

^{225.} Dīwān Imru' al Qays, 88.

^{226.} Concluding Essay, 46.

^{227.} Itaan, 1:166. Al Suyūtī states that the isnād of this report is interrupted (munqații').

^{228.} Martin Hinds, "The Siffin Arbitration Agreement," Journal of Semitic Studies 17, 95-96.

^{229.} Al Juwaynī, Al Burhān fī Uṣūl al Fiqh, 2:1293-300; Al Ghazzālī al Mustaṣfā, 1:123-24; Ibn Ḥazm, Al Iḥkām fī Uṣūl al Aḥkām, 1:440-41; Mafātīḥ al Ghayb, 1:432-33.

^{230.} Except for the Mu'tazilī scholars, who are reported to have objected to the theory of naskh entirely. See Mafātīh al Ghayb, 1:435; al Juwaynī, Al Burhān fī Usūl al Figh, 2:1312.

^{231.} Al Iḥkām fī Uṣūl al Aḥkām, 2:263; Mafātī ḥ al Ghayb, 1:435; al Āmidī, al Iḥkām, 2:264.

parts of verses were eliminated from the Qur'an. For example, Ibn 'Umar is reported to have said that the Prophet taught two men a surah and they would recite it. One night while they were offering prayers, they could not remember a single harf and they came next day to the Prophet and told him what happened. The Prophet informed them that this was a part of what had been abrogated, and told them to forget about it.²³²

It is also said that surah 33 used to contain two hundred verses, and that when 'Uthmān compiled the *maṣāḥif* he could find only what is present today.²³³ In another version it is said that this surah was similar to surah 2.²³⁴ Moreover, Hudhayfah is reported to have said that what we read of surah 9 is less than a fourth of the original.²³⁵

Ibn 'Umar is reported to have said:

Nobody should say that he has committed the whole Qur'an to memory, for he does not know what is the whole Qur'an. There is much of the Qur'an which has been eliminated. He should rather say that he has memorized what is found of it.²³⁶

Finally, al Thawrī is reported to have said that he came to know that some *Qurrā'* among the Companions were killed fighting Musaylimah on the day of Yamāmah and, as a result, some *hurūf* of the Qur'an were lost.²³⁷

The last mode of naskh brought into the discussion is mansūkh al tilāwah dūn al ḥukm (abrogated from recitation without the ruling). This means that some verses are abrogated in recitation and although they are not recitable, they are still judged to exist in practice. For example, some Qurrā' were killed at Bi'r Ma'ūnah and part of the revelation was eliminated. This was: "Inform our people that we have met our Lord, He is well pleased with us and has satisfied us." Al Suhaylī points out that this sentence clearly differs from the style of the Qur'an. This stylistic fact demonstrates the weakness of this report.

Another example concerns the prohibition of marriage to foster sisters referred to in the verse: "Prohibited to you (for marriage) are . . . foster sis-

^{232.} Itqān, 3:74. The isnād is weak, as pointed out by al Ghamārī, Dhawq al Ḥalāwah, 11.

^{233.} Itaan, 3:72. The isnad is not authentic. See Dhawa al Halawah, 12.

^{234.} Al İdāḥ, 46; Itqān, 3:72.

^{235.} Itaān, 3:75.

^{236.} Al Idah, 72.

^{237.} Dhawq al Ḥalāwah, 18-19. Al Ghamārī attributes it to the Muşannaf of 'Abd al Raz-zāq. He adds that this account is rejected, and he considers it false and contradictory to the Our'an.

^{238.} Itaān, 3:75.

^{239.} Al Rawd al Unuf, 6:206-07.

^{240.} Al Qirā'āt wa al Lahajāt, 81.

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ters" (4:23). In discussing the number of times of suckling necessary to establish the foster relationship, al Rāzī quotes a hadith attributed to 'Ā'ishah that states that the number was reduced from ten to five. In this case, ten sucklings is mansūkh al tilāwah wa al ḥukm and five is mansūkh al tilāwah dūn al hukm since the Qur'an refers to neither number.

This report is narrated by 'Ā'ishah in different versions. One version states that the verse of suckling was recited during the lifetime of the Prophet and he left it as a part of the Qur'an. 241 Makkī refers to the weakness of this version in that it contradicts both the Qur'an and reason. 242 He also regards this example as odd in the matter of abrogation in that the abrogating passage is not recited, so that the abrogated passage and the verdict of abrogation both stand. 243

After this Makkī assigns it to the second mode of *naskh*. Al Suyūṭī argues that what was meant by 'Ā'ishah is that the Prophet was near death when it was eliminated, or that some people did not know of the abrogation until after the death of the Prophet.²⁴⁴

Al Jassās (370/980) rejects this version because it indicates that the abrogation took place after the death of the Prophet.²⁴⁵ In addition, al Taḥāwī (321/933) considers the *riwāyah* to be weak and objects to it strongly.²⁴⁶

Furthermore, al Naḥḥās points out that Mālik Ibn Anas, despite narrating this hadith, rejects it and says that a single suckling causes taḥrīm, since this is the implication in the Qur'anic verse already mentioned. Al Naḥḥās (338/949) adds that Ahmad Ibn Ḥanbal and Abū Thawr also questioned this hadith, since they believed that three sucklings make taḥrīm, and refer to a hadith in this connection.²⁴⁷

In addition, al Naḥḥās states that if this version were authentic, 'Ā'ishah herself would have reported it to the committee of scribes, and then it would have been included in the *masāhif*.

Qur'an 15:9 also states: "We have without doubt sent down the message; and we will assuredly guard it (from corruption)."

Hammūdah argues that this report has come to us in many contradictory versions. Once it appears as mansūkh al tilāwah and at other times does not. In one version the prescriptions of five and ten times are revealed in a single verse, while in another version the ten sucklings were revealed

^{241.} Al Nawawi, Sahih Muslim bi Sharh al Nawawi, 10:29-30.

^{242.} Al Qaysī, Al Ìdāḥ li Nāshikh al Qur'ān wa Mansūkhih, 45.

^{243.} Ibid., 44.

^{244.} Itgān, 3:63.

^{245.} Aḥkām al Qur'ān, 2:125.

^{246.} Mushkil al Āthār. 3:6.

^{247.} Al Nāsikh wa al Mansūkh, 11.

prior to the five sucklings.²⁴⁸ To conclude, the hadith is unauthentic and groundless.

The third example of naskh is what is said to have been a Qur'anic verse: "Al shavkh wa al shavkhah, when they commit adultery, stone them as exemplary punishment from Allah; and Allah is Mighty and Wise."249 The verdict of stoning is agreed to be sunnah, as 'Umar and 'Alī were reported to have mentioned that stoning is established by the sunnah of the Prophet.²⁵⁰ Bukhārī, who narrates the penalty of stoning, does not mention the addition of "al shaykh wa al shaykhah." Al 'Asqalani suggests that Bukhārī's omission may have been intentional, because only one Rāwī among many has mentioned it, and the Rāwī could have been mistaken. Al 'Asqalanı adds that the great scholars (A'immah and Huffaz) have narrated the hadith, but they have not mentioned this addition.²⁵¹ Al Tahāwi discusses it in detail and concludes that the stoning of a married person is established by the sunnah of the Prophet. He supports his view by quoting 'Ali as having said: "I have flogged her according to the book of Allah, and stoned her according to the sunnah of the Prophet."252 This example is said to be the best one of mansūkh al tilāwah dūn al hukm.253

In addition to the *riwāyah* of "al shaykh wa al shaykhah," Marwān Ibn al Ḥakm is reported to have suggested to Zayd Ibn Thābit that he include it, but the latter refused on the grounds that it was contradictory, saying: "Don't you see that young married people are stoned if they commit adultery?" This would imply that Zayd was left to decide whether to accept or reject material for inclusion in the Qur'an. Moreover, Marwān is not known to have had any role in compiling the Qur'an. Al Ghamārī states that this version is *munkar*, and that Zayd could not have omitted something simply because it contradicted the stoning of young married people.²⁵⁵

Also, 'Umar is reported to have said that when it was revealed he came to the Prophet and asked him permission to write it, but he felt that the Prophet was unwilling for it to be written. Then 'Umar said to Zayd Ibn Thābit: "Don't you see that if the *shaykh* commits adultery and is unmarried, he is flogged and that if the young man commits adultery and is married, he is stoned?" However, it was unusual for the Prophet to be unwill-

^{248.} Al Qirā'āt wa al Lahajāt, 86.

^{249.} Itgān, 3:72.

^{250.} Fath al Bārī, 12:117-20.

^{251.} Ibid., 12:117.

^{252.} Mushkil al Āthār, 3:2.

^{253.} Al Oirā'āt wa al Lahajāt, 84-85.

^{254.} Fath al Bārī, 12:143.

^{255.} Dhawq al Ḥalāwah, 17. The term munkar signifies a hadith that is reported by a weak chain of narrators that contradicts more authentic information.

^{256.} Itqān, 3:76. Shaykh in this context means an old man.

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ing for a verse revealed to him to be written down, and it is doubtful that 'Umar could object to a verse that he believed to be revealed from Allah.²⁵⁷ Al Ghāmārī states that Allah would not have omitted a verse from the Qur'an just because some people objected to it. He adds that all these contradictions support the view that what some call the *āyat al rajm* (verse of al rajm) is not a verse at all. It is at most a hadith.²⁵⁸

The fourth example of mansūkh al tilāwah dūn al hukm is as follows:

If the son of Ådam were to ask for a wādī of wealth and be given it, he would ask for a second one, and if he were to ask for a second and be given it, he would ask for a third, and nothing would fill the gullet of the son of Adam except dust; and Allah accepts the repentance of the one who repents. Verily the faithful religion in the sight of Allah is the straight path (al Ḥanīfiyyah), which is not polytheism, not Judaism, and not Christianity. And he who does good deeds will not be rejected.²⁵⁹

Al Suhaylī (581/1185) states that this alleged Qur'anic verse would in any case be *khabar*, not *ḥukm* (i.e., narrative as opposed to command, prohibition, etc.), and therefore not subject to the rules of abrogations.²⁶⁰

The authentic *riwāyah* of this hadith mentions only that the Prophet read surah 98 to Ubayy without mentioning the addition. ²⁶¹ In another version, Ibn 'Abbās is reported to have said that he did not know if this (addition) was from the Qur'an or not. ²⁶² However, Ubayy himself is reported to have said also that they thought that it was from the Qur'an until *Sūrat al Takāthur* was revealed. ²⁶³

Al Alūsī considers that the addition attributed to Ubayy was not authentic.²⁶⁴ However, Ḥammūdah maintains that stylistically, in his view, it is a hadith because the words yahūdiyyah, naṣrāniyyah and ḥanīfiyyah are not found in the Qur'an, while the wording is similar to the utterances of a hadith.²⁶⁵

^{257.} Dhawq al Ḥalāwah, 17-18.

^{258.} Ibid., 18.

^{259.} Al Hākim, 2:224; Itqān, 3:73. Ubayy Ibn Ka'b is reported to have said that the Prophet read surah 98 to him and it included this addition.

^{260.} Al Rawd al Unuf, 2:176.

^{261.} Bukhārī, 6:256-57.

^{262.} Fath al Barī, 11:213.

^{263.} Ibid.; Miskkāt al Maṣābīḥ, 2:671.

^{264.} Rūh al Ma'ānī. 30:208.

^{265.} Al Qirā'āt wa al Lahajāt, 80.

Fifth, Abū Mūsā is reported to have said that they would read a surah, which they thought was similar to one of *al Musabbiḥāt*, ²⁶⁶ which they forgot, but that they remembered from it: "O ye who believe, do not say that which ye do not; it will be certified on your necks and you will be questioned about it on the Day of Judgment."

Sixth, 'Umar is reported to have said that they would recite: "Do not reject your fathers, for this will be (accounted) disbelief against you." Then he said to Zayd, "Was it so?" He replied, "Yes." 268

Seventh, 'Umar is also reported to have asked 'Abd al Raḥmān Ibn 'Awf if he did not find in what was revealed, "Fight as you have been fighting at first," for it was not found now. 'Abd al Raḥmān replied that it was from the part eliminated from the Qur'an. 269

Eighth, Maslamah ibn Khālid al Anṣārī is reported to have said that two verses from the Qur'an were not recorded:

Those who believed and suffered exile and fought in the path of Allah, with their wealth and persons, rejoice, for you are successful and those who gave them asylum and aided and defended them against the people with whom Allah is angry. No person knows what delights of the eyes are kept hidden for them—as a reward for their (good) deeds."²⁷⁰

It is obvious that these two verses are borrowed with little change from Qur'an 8:74 and 32:17 and joined together.

Ninth, 'Ā'ishah is reported to have recited Qur'an 33:56: "God and His Angels send blessings on the Prophet . . ." with the addition "And those who pray in the first line." This addition is reported to have been a hadith, ²⁷¹ which indicates that the report of 'Ā'ishah is no more than a sunnah.

Finally, it is said that the surahs that are sometimes combined into one surah known as *Qunūt* and sometimes known separately as *Sūrat al Khal* and *Sūrat al Hafad* were eliminated from the Qur'an.²⁷²

However, Ibn al Bāqillānī objects to his theory of mansūkh al tilāwah. He quotes a group of scholars who object to this kind of abroga-

^{266.} Al Musabbiḥāt are those surahs that begin with tasbīḥ (glorifying), such as surahs 61 and

^{267.} Itgān, 3:74; Burhān, 2:37.

^{268.} *Itqān*, 3:74. The *riwāyah* is not authentic, because there is a break in the transmission. See *Dhawq al Ḥalāwah*, 13.

^{269.} Itgān, 3:64.

^{270.} Ibid.

^{271.} Ibid., 3:73. The hadīth is not authentic, because its isnād includes two unknown rāwīs. Dhawq al Ḥalāwah,14.

^{272.} Itqān, 3:75. Al Ghāmārī states that what is called Surat al Ḥafad was composed by 'Umar. Dhawq al Ḥalāwah, 19.

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tion, because the reports are isolated and the revelation of the Qur'an and its abrogation cannot be judged by isolated reports, which are not sufficient evidence.²⁷³ A contemporary researcher has studied the theory of *naskh* and concludes that all these reports are fabricated, although he agrees in general to the *mansūkh al tilāwah wa al ḥukm*, since the elimination took place during the period of revelation and the lifetime of the Prophet.²⁷⁴

However, many reasons exist for objecting to both kinds of mansūkh al tilāwah, either with or without the hukm:

- 1. All examples given are either not authentic, contradict each other, or are isolated reports in many different versions.
- 2. The examples differ from the style of the Qur'an, as can be seen by comparing the end of surahs 2 and 3 with *Du'ā'* al *Qunūt* (a prayer usually recited in salah). It is not similar with the style of the Qur'an.
- 3. All *Uṣūlīs* agree that the Qur'an is substantiated only by successive reports (*tawatur*). These examples are not successive and therefore are anomalous reports.²⁷⁵

Although the Shi'ahs and the Ahl al Sunnah generally agree on the existence of mansūkh al tilāwah,²⁷⁶ some Shi'ah scholars claim that the Sunnī scholars' acceptance of the theory of mansūkh al tilāwah proves that the Qur'an has been corrupted.²⁷⁷ Western scholars have various opinions on the subject. Nöldeke accepts the traditional accounts of mansūkh al tilāwah,²⁷⁸ while Burton rejects the entire concept as a fabrication.²⁷⁹ Wansbrough, on the other hand and in line with his general approach, regards the whole problem as a projection back in time of later disputes.²⁸⁰

^{273.} Nukat al Intisār, 103-04; Itaān, 3:75.

^{274.} Mustafa Zayd, Al Naskh fi al Qur'ān al Karīm, 1:282-83. Supporting his view, he quotes al Tabarī, Tafsīr, 2:480, who states that it is not impossible that Allah would make his Prophet forget some (verses) revealed to him. 'Abd al Karīm al Kharīb in his book Min Qadāyā al Qur'ān, 235-36, suggests that in the final revealed version some verses were transferred to other surahs rather than being eliminated, but he does not quote any references to support his view.

Itqān, 3:75; Burhān, 2:36; Al Qirā'āt wa al Lahajāt, 77; Mabāḥith fī 'Ulūm al Qur'ān, 266; Dhawq al Ḥalāwah, 19-20.

^{276.} Al Tüsi, al Tibyan fi Tafsir al Qur'an, 1:13.

^{277.} Al Khū'ī, al Bayān fī Tafsīr al Qur'ān, 201; Tafsīr al Qummī, 1:22-25 (Introduction of the Editor, Tayyib al Mūsawī al Jazā'īrī).

^{278.} Nöldeke, Geschichte Des Qorans, 1:234-61.

^{279.} Burton, The Collection of the Qur'an, 238.

^{280.} Wansbrough, Quranic Studies, 197.

The Shi'ah Opinions on the Alteration of the Qur'an

Many *riwāyah*s in Shi'ah sources claim that the Qur'an has been altered by the omission of certain parts, which they claim was done intentionally because these parts concerned the position of *Ahl al Bayt*.²⁸¹

In one example, Abū 'Abd Allāh is reported to have said that the Qur'an as revealed by Jibrīl to Muhammad consisted of seventeen thousand verses. ²⁸² He is also reported to have said that surah 98 includes the names of seventy Qurayshī men and the names of their fathers. ²⁸³

Abū 'Abd Allāh also is reported to have directed one of his followers to read the present-day Qur'an, saying that when the $Q\bar{a}'im$ came he should read the original Qur'an in its complete form.²⁸⁴

Sūrat al Aḥzāb is said to have been equal in length to Sūrat al An'ām, and the virtues of Ahl al Bayt are said to have been omitted.²⁸⁵ Moreover, Abū 'Abd Allāh is reported to have said that the verse, "Ummatun hiya arbā min ummah" has been corrupted, and that it should be corrected to be read as, "A'immatun hiya azkā min a'immatikum."²⁸⁶

Certain Shi'ah scholars also claim that the meaning of certain verses has been deliberately distorted, an example of which is Qur'an 43:4: "And verily, it is in the Mother of the Books, in Our Presence, high (in dignity), full of wisdom." The word 'aliyy, which means high (in dignity) as it appears in the context, is assumed by the scholars to refer to 'Alī Ibn Abī Ṭālib.²⁸⁷ Furthermore, al Qummī states that the Qur'an has been altered by putting one harf in the place of another and that it contains that which is not in accordance with the revelation.²⁸⁸ Thus it is said that the muṣḥaf of Fāṭimah was three times the size of the existing muṣḥaf and that it did not contain a single harf of the latter.²⁸⁹

Furthermore, it is said that no one has the whole Qur'an except the A'immah.²⁹⁰ In addition, it is claimed that two surahs are missing from the

^{281.} Al Uşül min al Kāfī, 2:631-34; Uşül al Kāfī, ed. by 'Abd al Ḥusayn Ibn al Muzaffar, vol. II, part V, 178-204.

^{282.} Al Usūl min al Kāfī, 2:634.

^{283.} Ibid.

^{284.} Ibid., 633.

^{285.} Rūh al Ma'ānī, 1:24.

^{286.} Ibid.

^{287.} Tafsīr al Qummī, 1:28-29.

^{288.} Ibid., 5. The editor, al Mūsawī al Jazā'irī, agrees with the author and gives as an example the alleged omission of Fī 'Aliyy after "O Apostle! Proclaim the (message) which has been sent to you from your Lord" (5:70). Yūsuf Ah's translation, 264.

^{289.} Uşūl al Kāfī, vol. 2, part 5, 199-204.

^{290.} Ibid., 178-81.

^{291.} Nöldeke, Geschichte des Qorans, 2:102-3; Mukhtaşar al Tuhfah al Ithnay 'Ashriyyah, Introduction of Muhibb al Din al Khafib, 31.

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muṣḥaf concerning the rank of Ahl al Bayt: Sūrat al Walāyah and Sūrat al Nūrayn.²⁹¹ They consist of some Qur'anic verses brought from different surahs with some addition and alteration. Some Shi'ahs believe that these reports were fabricated, and no original source is given for them in Shi'ah reference works.²⁹²

Stylistically, many errors bear witness to their lack of authenticity.²⁹³ Moreover, 'Alī came after 'Uthmān and ruled for several years. He was succeeded by his son al Ḥasan, who ruled for several months. They would have been able to correct any errors or to put everything in its proper order if any had been altered. Furthermore, 'Alī is reported to have agreed with 'Uthmān, to have supported him in the matter of compilation, and to have defended him against the rebels.²⁹⁴

Most Shi'ahs also reject the theory of alteration on the grounds of the nonauthenticity and fabrication of the reports, 295 of the stylistic differences and linguistic errors, 296 and because the title, given as al $N\bar{u}rayn$ (referring to the Prophet and 'Alī), is known historically to have been invented later in the seventh century of the Hijrah. 297 Some reports are said to be authentic, although they indicate that the mushaf has been altered. However, they are interpreted as referring to interpretation added to the text as $tafs\bar{v}r$ only and not as part of the Qur'an. 298 Indeed, the $mas\bar{a}hif$ that exist today among all Muslims are the same. The $mas\bar{a}hif$ printed in Egypt were accepted and copied in Iran and other places, without any alterations, additions, or omissions.

They agree in the recitation and orthography, though they may differ concerning the meanings and $tafs\bar{\imath}r$.

Two Alleged Episodes That Cast Doubt

Before concluding this chapter it is appropriate to mention briefly the two alleged episodes that have sometimes been referred to as casting doubt on the trustworthiness of the text of the Qur'an.

^{292.} Tafsīr Ālā' al Rahmān, the author's introduction, 16-17.

^{293.} Ibid.

^{294.} Al Kāmil, 3:112.

^{295.} Al Ţūsī, Al Tibyān fī Tafsīr al Qur'ān, 1:3; Tafsīr Ālā' al Raḥmān, 17-18; al Ṭabarsī, Majma' al Bayān fī Tafsīr al Qur'ān, 1:15; Nukat al Intisār, 365.

^{296.} Tafsīr Ālā' al Raḥmān, 16-17; Darāz, Madkhal, 40.

^{297.} Darāz, Madkhal, 40.

^{298.} Tafsīr Ālā' al Raḥmān, 18-19.

^{299.} See, for example, al Rāzī, Mafātī h al Ghayb, 23:49-56; 'Iyād, Al Shifa, 2:282-305; Ibn Kathīr, Tafsīr, 3:229-81; al Qāsimī, Tafsīr, 12:36-57; Sayyid Qutb, Fī Zilāl al Qur'ān, 4:2431-36; 'Abd al Karīm al Khatīb, Al Tafsīr al Qur'ānī, 3:1061-85; al Albānī, Naṣb al Majānīq li Nasf Qiṣṣat al Gharānīq; A.M. Ahsan, "The 'Satanic' Verses and Orien-talism," Hamdard Islamicus 5, no. 1 (Spring 1982):27-36. See also Bell and Watt, Introduction to

The first of these is the story of the *gharānīq*, which many writers have discussed.²⁹⁹ In essence, the Prophet is reported as having recited surah 53 in Makkah, and when he came to its end he made the *sajdah* of *tilāwah* and in this he was followed by those who were present at the time, among whom were some non-Muslims.³⁰⁰ A number of the earlier Muslims who had emigrated to Abyssinia are reported to have subsequently returned to Makkah, having heard that the people of Makkah had embraced Islam after following the Prophet in his *sujūd al tilāwah*.³⁰¹ So far the reports are accepted, but some narrators link this report with the story of *al ghāranīq*, in which it is said that when the Prophet recited Qur'an 53:10-20, he added to the Qur'an the words: "Tilka al gharānīq al 'ulā wa inna shafā'atahunna la turtajā" ("These are the exalted gharānīq whose intercession is to be hoped for"), and that Jibrīl came with a revelation to abrogate it immediately. Moreover, certain *mufassirūn* quote the story as an example of Shaytān interfering in the process of revelation.

The story, however, is fiction, being found no earlier than the time of the Followers and not being attributed in any of its versions (to, say, any one of the Companions), let alone to the Prophet.³⁰³ Hence, al Rāzī asserts that the story was invented by enemies of Islam.³⁰⁴

The presence of this story in many books of $tafs\bar{i}r$ is no different from the presence there of what is introduced under the name of *Isrā'ī livvāt*. Al Oādi 'Ivād refutes it on two grounds. First, the story is groundless, obscure. contradictory, and is not attributed to anyone among the Companions. Second, the context contradicts the infallibility of the Prophet, for it is impossible for Satan to have any effect on him or that he would wish to praise false gods, intentionally or otherwise, because the Prophet is reported as saying, "Verily my eyes sleep but my heart does not." Al Qādi 'Iyād adds that the story's words differ in style and seem alien to the Our'an, and that there is no report from the enemies of Islam of different origins that any of them used the story against the Our'an. Furthermore, no one among the newly converted Muslims reverted from Islam as a result of this story, as happened on the occasion of the Isrā'. In addition, Ouraysh and Thaqīf had told the Prophet that if he pleased their idols only by looking on them with favor that they would embrace Islam. The Prophet had refused their proposal, which indicates the falsehood of the story of the gharānīa. 305

the Qur'ān, 88-89; Watt, Muhammad at Mecca, 101-09; Lichiten-staedter, "A Note on the Gharānīq and Related Qur'ānic Problems," Israel Oriental Studies, no. 5 (1975):54-61; Burton, "Those are the high-flying cranes," JSS, no. 15 (1970):246-65.

^{300.} Bukhārī, 6:363; Tirmidhī, 3:58.

^{301.} Sīrat Ibn Hishām, 3:330-33.

^{302.} Tabarī, Tafsīr, 17:186-90, 3rd ed., 1388/1968 (unedited version).

^{303.} Ibn Kathīr, Tafsīr, 3:229-231; Al Shifā', 2:289.

^{304.} Mafātīh al Ghayb, 23:51.

^{305.} Al Shifa', 2:289-97.

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According to al Qāḍi 'Iyāḍ, if the story were authentic, the best interpretation for al gharānīq would have been the angels, since their intercession could be hoped for. However, when the polytheists attributed the word gharānīq to their idols it was abrogated.³⁰⁶

Al Rāzī, in refuting the story, points out that it is rejected by the Qur'an, Sunnah, and reason. First, he quotes the following verses of the Our'an:

And if the Messenger were to invent any sayings in Our name, We should certainly seize him by his right hand, and We should certainly then cut off the artery of his heart: Nor could any of you withhold him (from Our wrath). (69:44-46)

... It is not for me of my own accord, to change it: I follow naught but what is revealed unto me: if I were to disobey my Lord, I should myself fear the penalty of a Great Day to come. (10:15)

Nor does he say (aught) of (his own) desire. It is no less than inspiration sent down to him. (53:3-4)

And their purpose was to tempt you away from that which We had revealed unto thee to substitute in Our name something quite different: (In that case), behold! They would certainly have made you (their friend)! And had We not given you strength you would nearly have inclined to them a little. (17:73-74)

... Thus (is it revealed), that We may strengthen your heart thereby, and We have rehearsed it to thee in slow well-arranged stages gradually. (25:32)

By degrees shall We teach you to declare (The Message), so you will not forget. (87:6)

Second, al Rāzī reports Ibn Khuzaymah (311/923) as having said that the story was fabricated by *Zanādiqah* and that he composed a book on this subject and reports al Bayhaqī as having stated that "this story is groundless in its transmission and the narrators of it are rejected." He also refers to al Bukhārī, who does not mention the story.³⁰⁷

Third, al Rāzī argues that to praise idols is kufr, which cannot be attributed to the Prophet, who was not able to pray in the Ka'bah until after the

^{306.} Ibid., 302.

^{307.} Mafātīh al Ghayb, 23:51.

polytheists had left it (because of their hatred for him). He adds that God would have prevented Satan from causing mischief at the outset rather than allowing him to do so and then correcting it, thus allowing for possible confusion. Al Rāzī refutes the possibility that the Prophet could have added or omitted anything from the revelation.³⁰⁸

Furthermore, what is meant by the word "yansakhu" in Qur'an 22:53 is its linguistic meaning (i.e., izālah), rather than the term used in al nāsikh wa al mansūkh.³⁰⁹ In addition, the word "tamannā" in this context simply means hope,³¹⁰ although it may have another meaning in Arabic, to recite.³¹¹ In fact, Ibn Hishām mentions nothing more than the fact that the Muhājirūn came back to Makkah.³¹²

Ibn Kathīr objects to the story of the *gharānīq* and confirms that it is not accepted. He states that although it has been narrated in many different weak versions, it is rejected because the weak version is not acceptable no matter how often it is reported.³¹³

Muḥammad 'Abduh points out that the word *ghurnūq* or *ghirnīq* (plural *gharānīq*) is not found in any sound report as having been used by the pre-Islamic Arabs in their poems or speeches as a name for their idols. In addition, he studies the meanings of the word lexicographically and concludes that none of them seems to be relevant to the idols.³¹⁴

As regards the second episode of the *gharānīq*, it is maintained that certain scribes of the Prophet would deceive him and alter the text of the Qur'an, changing the ending of the verses, and that the Prophet saw little point in objecting to this. He accepted the alternations on the grounds that it makes no difference whether the phrase is written *Samī'un 'Alīm* or '*Alīmun Samī'*.' The story is attributed to 'Abd Allāh Ibn Abī al Sarḥ, who, as a result, is reported to have left Islam and gone back to Makkah and claimed that he wrote what he wanted. In another version, it is said that when the Prophet recited Qur'an 23:12-14 and asked him to write it down, he commented "*fatabāraka Allāhu aḥsanu al khāliqīn*." The Prophet then said, "So it has been revealed," whereupon he reverted and said that it had been revealed to him as much as to the Prophet. He was ordered to be

^{308.} Ibid.

^{309.} Ibid., 23:52, 56.

^{310.} Ibid., 23:51; Tafsīr al Qāsimī, 12:46-47.

^{311.} Ibid.

^{312.} Sīrat Ibn Hishām, 3:330-33. However, Muḥammad Ibn Ishāq is reported as having narrated this episode with the addition of al Gharānīq. See Tabarī, Tafsīr, 17:187 (unedited version).

^{313.} Ibn Kathīr, Tafsīr, 3:229-31.

^{314.} Tafsīr al Qāsimī, 12:56.

^{315.} Al Shifā', 2:306; al Qāḍī 'Iyāḍ comments that the report is no more than a narration attributed to a nonbeliever whose report is most fit to be rejected.

^{316.} Qurțubī, 7:40.

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killed after the conquest of Makkah. However, this report is groundless, since it is not mentioned in the earlier reliable sources. For example, there is no mention of this in the books of *Maghāzī* and *Sīrah* of Ibn Hishām. The first reference mentioning this is on the authority of Ibn al Kalbī (146/763) and al Wāqidī (207/822).³¹⁷ However, both men are accused liars.³¹⁸

The same thing is attributed to 'Abd Allāh Ibn Abī Khaṭal³¹⁹ and to an ex-Christian who also is said to have made alterations and reverted to Christianity. It is also reported that his grave cast him up many times.³²⁰

The story, however, is groundless and fictitious. It is difficult to believe that the Qur'an, which was memorized by the Prophet and many of his Companions, certain of whom had their own personal manuscripts, should have been altered with or without the Prophet's consent. The Prophet is reported as having corrected al Barā' Ibn 'Āzib when he changed a single word when he read from his memory what he had been taught to say when going to sleep. Thus, it is impossible that the Prophet would have permitted any change in the text of the Qur'an. Furthermore, the ending verses (al fawāṣil) play an important role in the beauty of the style of the Qur'an.

In no case do the scribes differ in writing any $f\bar{a}silah$, although they have been reported as having differed in writing the word al $t\bar{a}b\bar{u}t$ (whether to write it with a final ta' or ha').

Reliable sources do mention that 'Abd Allāh Ibn Abī al Sarḥ was a Muslim and one of the scribes of the revelation, and that he reverted and fled from Madīnah to his people in Makkah. As a result, when the Prophet conquered Makkah he ordered that Ibn Abī al Sarḥ be killed. However, 'Uthmān interceded and asked the Prophet to accept his repentance, which he did. Even if Ibn Abī al Sarḥ claimed, after leaving Islam, that he made alterations in the Qur'an, this allegation should not be accepted any more than in the case of al Raḥḥāl Ibn 'Unfuwah. The latter was sent on a mission to Banū Ḥanīfah, the people of Musaylimah, but joined Musaylimah. There he told the people that he came with a message that the Prophet agreed to share with Musaylimah, and some followed him. Thus, we cannot accept these allegations.

Also it is difficult to believe that the Prophet was deceived three times, respectively, given his statement: "The believer is not stung twice from the same hole."³²³

^{317.} Al Wāqidī, Maghāzī, 2:855.

^{318.} Al A'zamī, Kuttāb al Nabiyy, 89.

^{319.} Ibn Sayyid al Nās, 'Uyūn al Athar, 2:175-76, 315-16.

^{320.} Ibn Abī Dāwūd, Kitāb al Masāhif, 3.

^{321.} Bukhārī, 8:216-17.

^{322.} Tārīkh al Ṭabarī, 3:289.

^{323.} Sunan Ibn Mājah, 2:1318, hadith nos. 3982-83.

In conclusion, we can say that the Qur'an was committed to the hearts of the Companions and recorded by special scribes appointed by the Prophet during his life-time.

Abū Bakr compiled these records in a complete mushaf, ordering them by avah and surah, as he found them in the writings and supported by the memories of Huffaz. This mushaf was kept in his custody and passed to 'Umar, who left it in the custody of his daughter, because he died before the succession of 'Uthman. When differences arose among the Ourra'. 'Uthman, with the consent of the Companions, had copies from the master copy of Abū Bakr distributed to the amsar along with a Qāri' to teach the people. The Our'an was received and transmitted with tawatur generation after generation. Hence, our mushaf is a complete record of the Qur'an without alteration, addition, or omission. Obscured, weak, or fabricated reports cannot be accepted in the matter of the Our'an, which needs tawatur for every piece of information concerning its text. Although the abrogation of certain verses during the lifetime of the Prophet does not affect the trustworthiness of the Qur'an, all claimed examples of mansūkh al tilāwah, with or without hukm, which we have studied, are shown to be groundless, as are the two episodes of the gharānīq and the accounts of scribes having altered the fawāsil of the Our'an.

CHAPTER 3



THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE 'UTHMĀNIC MAṢĀḤIF

The Maṣāḥif and Their Relation to the Aḥruf

Did the *maṣāḥif* compiled by 'Uthmān include the seven *aḥruf* discussed in the first chapter? Views on this differ according to the various views on the nature of the seven *aḥruf*.

Ibn al Jazarī attributes to a group of scholars the view that the *maṣāḥif* contain the seven *aḥruf*. The scholars argue that the Ummah cannot abandon anything of the *aḥruf*, and that the *maṣāḥif* were copied from the compilation of Abū Bakr.¹ Ibn Ḥazm supports this view, stating that 'Uthmān did not change anything in the Qur'an and could not rescind the permission to recite the Qur'an in seven *aḥruf* given to the Muslims to facilitate its reading. He adds that 'Uthmān's aim was to unify Muslims and to provide them with *maṣāḥif* to correct the mistakes of some *Qurrā*' and their personal manuscripts and to make his *maṣāḥif* a reference for all Muslims.² Ibn al Bāqillānī supported this view, stating that what 'Uthmān had done was to stop people from reciting the Qur'an in certain unauthentic ways and interpolating explanatory material. He adds that neither 'Uthmān nor any other Muslim leader could make difficult for the Ummah what had previously been made easy for them. Moreover, he says that the people did not differ about famous and authentic *aḥruf*, but only about isolated readings.³

Another group of scholars states that 'Uthmān compiled the *maṣāḥif* in only one *ḥarf* and abandoned the rest of the *aḥruf*.⁴ Al Ṭabarī argues for this, stating that Muslims were permitted (*rukhṣah*), not obliged to recite

^{1.} Nashr. 1:31.

^{2.} Al Faşl fī al Milal wa al Niḥal, 2:77.

Al Murshid al Wajīz, 142. Al Ja'burī adopts this view and regards it as authentic. See his Kanz al Ma'ānī, f4.

^{4.} Al Ţabarī, Tafsīr, 1:63-64; Mushkil al Āthār, 4:190-91.

the Qur'an in seven aḥruf. He adds that when 'Uthmān witnessed the disputes among the Muslims over the qirā'ah he decided, with the Ummah's consent, to unify them in one ḥarf.⁵ Al Ṭaḥāwī supports this view and states that the permission for seven aḥruf was needed because Muslims found it difficult to change their habits due to their illiteracy. He adds that when their dialect more closely resembled that of the Prophet and when more people could write, they were commanded by 'Uthmān to read the Qur'an in only one ḥarf.⁶ Al Qurtubī attributes this view to Sufyān Ibn 'Uyaynah, 'Abd Allāh Ibn Wahb, al Ṭabarī, al Ṭaḥawī, Ibn 'Abd al Barr, and many of the scholars.⁷

Finally, the *maṣāḥif* are said to contain as much of the *aḥruf* as can be accommodated within the orthography of the Qur'an, according to the final revealed version⁸—the view attributed to most scholars. Conse-quently, the *maṣāḥif* include an undefined number of *aḥruf*, certainly more than one *ḥarf* but not all seven *aḥruf*.⁹ Ibn al Jazarī opts for this view, using the argument of al Ṭabarī.¹⁰ Al 'Asqalānī supports this view, stating that the *maṣāḥif* contain an unspecified number of the seven *aḥruf*. He gives an example from the *maṣāḥif*, in which the word *min* in Qur'an 9:100 exists in the *muṣḥaf* of Makkah, while it is omitted in the *maṣāḥif* of the other cities.¹¹ Abū Shāmah quotes al Mahdawī as having supported this view, and considers it the sounder one, attributing it to the eminent scholars.¹²

Indeed, this last view seems to be the most likely and acceptable, since indications of more than one *harf* exist in the *maṣāḥif*, as has been pointed out by al 'Asqalānī.¹³

Those who agree that the *maṣāḥif* include only one *harf* or an unspecified number of *aḥruf* differ regarding their abrogation and whether it took place during the Prophet's lifetime, a view attributed to most scholars, or whether it took place later, at the time of the compilation of 'Uthmān, on the grounds that it was not an obligation of Muslims to preserve all seven *aḥruf*, but rather a *rukhṣah* (permission), and that when 'Uthmān witnessed the dispute among the Muslims concerning *qirā'āt*, he removed this permission.¹⁴

^{5.} Al Tabarī, Tafsīr, 1:58-59.

^{6.} Mushkil al Āthār, 4:190-91.

^{7.} Qurțubī, 1:42-43.

^{8.} Nashr, 1:31; Itqān, 1:141-42.

^{9.} Nashr, 1:31-32.

^{10.} Ibid.

^{11.} Fath al Bārī, 9:30.

^{12.} Al Murshid al Wajīz, 140-42.

^{13.} Fath al Bārī, 9:30.

Sharh al Sunnah, 4:525-26; Sharh al Zurqanī, 2:11-12; al Muțī'ī, Al Kalimāt al Ḥisān, 113-14.

However, the existence of all seven aḥruf or an unspecified amount of them in the qirā'āt does not necessarily mean that they were written down in the maṣāḥif. Makkī Ibn Abī Ṭālib al Qaysī states: "The Qur'an was written in one ḥarf to minimize the difference (in readings) among Muslims." This is supported by al Baghawī, who states that this was according to the final revealed version. 16

Orthography of the Maṣāḥif

The *maṣāḥif* contained neither vowels nor diacritic points, and thus in this respect the Arabic orthography resembled the scripts from which it was derived.

Some scholars have maintained that this lack of vocalization and diacritics was intentional, so that either all seven aḥruf or some portion of them could be accommodated. Among the scholars who shared this view are al Dānī,¹⁷ Ibn al 'Arabī,¹⁸ Ibn Taymiyya,¹⁹ and Ibn al Jazañ.²⁰ This view assumes that vocalization and diacritics were known to the Arabs when they wrote the maṣāḥif. Indeed, many authorities maintain that the Arabic letters had always possessed these features or at least i'jām (dotting).²¹ In support of this, we might adduce certain documents that have been dated to the early first century A.H. The first one dates from the reign of 'Umar in 22/643, and in it appear some letters with dotting; i.e., khā', dhāl, zāy, shīn, and nūn.²² The other document is that of al Ṭā'if, which dates from the reign of Mu'āwiyah in 58/677 and in which most letters that require dots are dotted.²³

The *maṣāḥif* remained unchanged until it was felt necessary to develop their orthography by introducing vocalization to help the readers of the Qur'an read it perfectly and avoid errors in the $i'r\bar{a}b$, which had been brought about by non-Arabs who had embraced Islām.²⁴

^{15.} Al Ibānah, 33; Munjid, 56.

^{16.} Sharh al Sunnah, 4:525.

^{17.} Al Muhkam fi Nagt al Masāḥif, 3.

^{18.} Al 'Awāşim min al Qawāşim, 2:481.

^{19.} Fatāwā, 12:100-2.

^{20.} Nashr, 1:32.

Şubḥ al A'shā, 3:151; Miftāḥ al Sa'ādah, 2:89; Kashf al Zunūn, 1:712. Al Dānī in his book al Muḥkam, p. 35, mentions the pre-Islamic Aslam Ibn Khudrah as a pioneer of vocalization and diacritics.

Grohmann, From the World of Arabic Papyri (Cairo: 1952), 82, 113-14; al Munajjid, Tārīkh al Khaţţ al 'Arabī, 37-39, 116, 126; al Jabbūrī, Aşl al Khaţţ al 'Arabī wa Taţawwuruhū, 107.

^{23.} Early Islamic Inscriptions Near Taif in the Hijaz, JNES, no. 7 (1948):236-42; al Munajjid, Tārīkh al Khaţţ al 'Arabī, 101-03.

^{24.} Al Muhkam fi Naqt al Masāḥif, 3-4, 18-19.

During the reign of Mu'āwiyah, Ziyād, the governor of Baṣrah, is reported to have appointed Abū al Aswad al Du'alī to introduce final vocalization. He was, accordingly, the first scholar to introduce vocalization (nagt al i'rāb) into the orthography of the masāhif.²⁵

Some other *riwāyah*s state that Yaḥyā Ibn Ya'mur or Naṣr Ibn 'Āṣim was the first to introduce *naqt*.²⁶

However, al Qalqashandī states that most scholars agree that Abū al Aswad introduced vocalization,²⁷ although *naqṭ al i'rāb* of Abū al Aswad al Du'alī consisted merely of the indication of final vowels $(i'r\bar{a}b)$ and $tanw\bar{n}n$.²⁸

The second step in the development of the *maṣāḥif* was the introduction of diacritic points (*naqt al i'jām*). This took place during the reign of 'Abd al Malik Ibn Marwān, who is said to have commanded al Ḥajjāj (d. 95 A.H.), the governor of Iraq, to appoint certain scholars to distinguish the letters. Naṣr Ibn 'Āṣim is said to have been appointed to carry out the task. He then was the first to introduce *naqt al i'jām*, for the same reason as for the first step, *naqt al i'rāb*, which was to facilitate the reading of the *maṣāḥif*. Vocalization and diacritics were the same, consisting of dots that were distinguished by color: red for *naqt al i'rāb* and black for *naqt al i'jām*. 30

Among the scholars, there were many who disliked this idea, as they disapproved of any change or development in the orthography of the maṣā-hif³¹¹ and because for them it was easier to read the maṣāhif in their original form, since the actual recitation of the Qur'an depends on the riwāyah.³² Indeed, for a long time the scholars and men of letters considered the use of naqt in letters an insult.³³

The third step in the development of the orthography of the maṣāḥif was that undertaken by al Khalīl Ibn Aḥmad (d. 170/786), who introduced a new system of symbols (ḥarakāt) for i'rāb. It was not applied immedi-

^{25.} Ibid., 3-4; Al Aghānī, 12:298; Itqān, 4:160; Al Awā'il, 2:129-30; al Anbārī, Nuzhat al Alibbā', 8-11. He adds that the authentic view is that Abū al Aswad was appointed by 'Alī Ibn Abī Tālib.

^{26.} Al Dānī states that Yaḥyā and Naṣr were probably the first to introduce naqt to the people and that they had been taught by Abū al Aswad, who started naqt (Al Muḥ-kam, 5-6). Qurtubī adds the name of al Ḥasan to that of Yaḥyā (Qurtubī, 1:63); Suyūṭū attributes it to all of them (Abū al Aswad, Yaḥyā, and al Ḥassan) adding Naṣr, but considers the attribution to Abū al Aswad the most accepted (Itqān, 4:160); Miftah al Sa'ādah, 2:24.

^{27.} Al Muhkam, 6.

^{28.} Subh al A'shā, 3:156.

^{29.} Al Muhkam, 18-19.

^{30.} Ibid., 19-20, 22-23.

Ibid., 10-11, where he mentions the names of some eminent scholars such as Ibn Mas'ūd, Ibn 'Umar, Qatādah, Ibn Sirīn, Mālik Ibn Anas, and Aḥmad Ibn Hanbal.

^{32.} Ibn Taymiyyah, Fatāwā, 12:100-1.

^{33.} Al Sūh, Adab al Kuttāb, 61.

ately to the *maṣāḥif*, for the scribes disliked what they called *naqṭ al shi'r* and were unwilling to use this new system in place of *naqṭ al i'rāb* of Abū al Aswad al Du'alī, which they were used to and regarded as the way of the *salaf*.³⁴

The harakāt symbols of al Khalil Ibn Ahmad eventually dominated and replaced naqt al i'rāb.³⁵ In addition, he introduced into his new system of orthography the signs of hamz, tashād, rawm, and ishmām.³⁶ The consonantal spelling of the Qur'an remained unaltered, because most scholars opposed any change. They argued that the maṣāhif should remain as they have come to us from the Companions and that the orthography is tawqīf.³⁷

Abū 'Ubayd, Mālik Ibn Anas, Ahmad Ibn Ḥanbal, and al Bayhaqī are reported to have objected to any change in the orthography of the *masā-hif*. Al Zamaksharī supported this view when he stated that "the orthography of the *maṣāḥif* is sunnah and should not be changed."

The Islamic institutions have supported this view to the present day, for the maṣāḥif are printed only according to the traditional orthography. 40

Certain scholars argued, however, that the orthography of the maṣāḥif is convention and that people may write their maṣāḥif in accordance with the new orthography. Ibn al Bāqillānī is reported to have supported this view, stating that there is no evidence from the Qur'an, the sunnah, consensus, or analogy and that there is no fixed way of writing. Thus, in his view, any orthography that gives the correct reading and is easy to follow is permitted. Ibn Khaldūn supported this view and argued that the art of orthography is merely conventional, that it was not perfect when the maṣāḥif were compiled, that there is no sound reason for retaining the old orthography, and that there is no valid argument against writing the maṣāḥif according to the new system.

Finally, al 'Izz Ibn 'Abd al Salām maintained that it is not only permitted but necessary (wājib) that the maṣāḥif should be written according to the new orthography so that uneducated people may not fall into error.⁴³

^{34.} Al Muhkam, 22, 43.

^{35.} Itgān, 4:162.

^{36.} Al Muhkam, 6.

^{37.} Ibid., 17; Iqāz al A'lām, passim.

^{38.} Ibid., 11; Itqān, 4:146-47; Miftāḥ al Sa'ādah, 2:225; Al Burhān fi 'Ulūm al Qur'ān, 1:379-88.

^{39.} Al Kashshāf, 3:265.

Rüstüfadüni, Tärikh al Qur'ān wa al Maṣāḥif, 12; al Shinqin, İqāz al A'lām li Wujūb Ittibā' Rasm al Muṣḥaf al Imām; al Ḥaddād, Khulāṣat al Nuṣūṣ al Jaliyyah, 11-16; Makhlūf, 'Unwān al Bayān, 72-78.

^{41.} Tafsīr al Marāghī, 1:13-14.

^{42.} Al Muqaddimah, 457.

^{43.} Al Burhān fi 'Ulūm al Our'ān, 1:379.

Al Zarkashī opted for this view, while adding that the 'Uthmānic orthography also should be preserved and kept as a precious inheritance. Al Marāghī adopted this view and stated that he, for the same reason as that given by al 'Izz Ibn 'Abd al Salām, preferred to write the verses while writing his *tafsīr* according to the new orthography. His reasoning is that at the present time people have more need for it than they did in the time of Ibn 'Abd al Salām. 45

However, according to the general belief, the orthography of the *maṣā-ḥif* should not be altered since, as Ibn al Jazarī says, this orthography accommodates the variant readings of the Qur'an in accordance with the revelation of the Qur'an in seven *aḥruf*. Al Dānī states that the differences among *maṣāḥif* in preserving or omitting certain letters and words is because of the need to preserve all the *aḥruf* revealed to the Prophet and received by the Companions. 47

The most practical way of dealing with this problem may be that adopted in certain *maṣāḥif* intended for learners, in which the words that differ in writing from the contemporary orthography are explained in the margins.⁴⁸ This system helps contemporary readers, particularly learners, while preserving the inherited orthography of the *maṣāḥif*.⁴⁹

Ibn Abī Dāwūd attributes to al Ḥajjāj the introduction of certain consonantal and orthographical modifications in eleven places in the Qur'an. According to him they are as follows:

- 1. 2:259: The word yatasanna was changed to yatasannah.
- 2. 5:48: The word sharī'atan was changed to shir'atan.
- 3. 10:22: The word yanshurukum was changed to yusayyirukum.
- 4. 12:45: The word 'atīkum was changed to 'unabbi'ukum.
- 5. 23:58-59: The word *lillāh* occurs three times, the last two times being changed to *Allāh*.
- 6. 26:116: The word al mukhrajīn was changed to al marjūmīn.
- 7. 26:167: The word al marjūmīn was changed to al mukhrajīn.
- 8. 43:32: The word ma'ā'ishahum was changed to ma'īshatahum.

^{44.} Ibid.

^{45.} Tafsīr al Marāghī, 1:15.

^{46.} Nashr, 1:12.

^{47.} Al Muqni, 114. Examples will be forthcoming, 91f.

^{48.} This method was adopted recently in 'Abd al Jahl 'Isa, Al Mushaf al Muyassar and Mushaf al Shurūq al Mufassar.

^{49.} Mālik Ibn Anas is reported to have agreed to write maṣāḥif for learners in the standard orthography. See al Dānī, Al Muḥkam fi Naqt al Maṣāḥif, 11.

9. 47:15: The word yāsin was changed to āsin.

10. 57:7: The word ittaqaw was changed to anfaqū.

11. 81:24: The word zanīn was changed to danīn. 50

However, this report of Ibn Abī Dāwūd is not regarded as authentic for several reasons. First, the isnād of this riwāyah is not sound, since the author cites an unnamed book by his father and two obscure and unacceptable Ruwāt in the isnād.51 Second, Ibn Abī Dāwūd is the only source for this information and his scholarship has been discredited by his own father.52 Third, al Hajjāj would have been opposed, in his time or later, if he had made this alleged modification.53 Fourth, Ibn Abī Dāwūd says—on the same page—of 'Abd Allah Ibn Zivad that he asked Yazid al Farisi to add the letter (alif) twice in the middle and at the end of $q\bar{a}l\bar{u}$ and $k\bar{a}n\bar{u}$. It is said that he thus added two thousand (alifs) into the mushaf.⁵⁴ Al Hajjāj objected to this, even though the meaning of the text would not be altered. This fact makes it more unlikely that he himself would have made any innovations. In any case, it is said that Ibn Mas'ūd read lillāh in three places in Qur'an 23:58-59, while the people of Iraq read lillāh in the first place and Allāh in the other two,55 while again in the Mushaf al Imām and the mushaf of Basrah, Allāh occurred on the first two occasions and lillāh on the third.⁵⁶ Thus all of these variations existed before the time of al Haijāj and therefore he could have no role in any alteration. In fact, references show that all of these spellings given by al Dānī predate al Ḥajjāj. Finally, if al Hajjāj's aim was to correct acknowledged errors in the text, we would not expect any of these spellings to be preserved in the accepted readings, as in fact they are.

Some examples are accepted in both forms among the *Qurrā'*, such as the first example, while others are not (as in Qur'an 26:116 and 167 which are not found in any source). However, as regards the orthography of these words, they apparently were not dotted before al Ḥajjāj. Thus, their readings were governed only by *riwāyah*, and what can be attributed to

^{50.} Al Maṣāḥif, 49-50, 117-118.

Ibid., 117; al 'Asqalārī, Tahdhīb al Tahdhīb, 5:89-115; 8:166-167; al Bukhārī, Kitāb al Du'afā' al Saghīr, 76.

^{52.} Tadhkirat al Huffāz, 2:770-72; Tabaqāt al Huffāz, 75-76.

^{53.} See, for example, Tārīkh al Tabarī, vol. 6, passim; Ibn Kathīr, Al Bidāyah wa al Nihāyah, 9:117-39; Tārīkh Khalīfah Ibn Khayyāt, part 1, 340-419.

^{54.} Al Maṣāḥif, 117. The isnād includes Yazīd al Fārisī, who was regarded as weak (chapter 2, page 63). However, according to al Dārī, the omission of alif after the wāw of plural was consistent, except in a few cases of which he gives examples. Al Mugni, 26-7.

^{55.} Muqaddimatān, 119.

^{56.} Ma' al Masāhif, 117-18.

al Ḥajjāj is, in fact, only the introduction of naqt al i'jām throughout the maṣāḥif and not only in these particular examples. The muṣḥaf continued to be read according to the riwāyah, and the vocalization and dotting were in accordance with this.

Jeffery regards this supposed consonantal and orthographical modification as "an entirely new recension of the Qur'an" and maintains that "this new text promulgated by al Ḥajjāj seems to have undergone more or less extensive alterations." Indeed, he exaggerates the role of al Ḥajjāj as stated in the Kitāb al Maṣāḥif to the extent of claiming that "if this is so, our textus receptus is not based on the recension of 'Uthmān but on that of al Ḥajjāj Ibn Yūsuf."

However, al Hajjāj had done nothing except sanction the diacritic points introduced by scholars whom he had appointed for the purpose. He distributed copies of the 'Uthmānic maṣāhif to the metropolitan cities, including Egypt. The governor there, 'Abd al 'Azīz Ibn Marwān, was insulted to receive a muṣḥaf, for he felt that he had no need of the work of al Ḥajjāj. 1

Thus, nothing can be attributed to al Ḥajjāj as regards the maṣāḥif apart from the diacritic points, which were introduced by scholars appointed by al Ḥajjāj (who himself was commanded by 'Abd al Malik Ibn Marwān).62

The next step, after the introduction of vocalization and diacritic points, was the addition of surah titles with an indication of their beginnings and endings⁶³ and the place of their revelation,⁶⁴ and a sign consisting of three dots at the end of each verse.⁶⁵ Furthermore, the verses were divided into portions of akhmās (fives) and ash'ār (tens),⁶⁶ and then the muṣḥaf was divided into thirty parts (ajzā'), each juz' into two divisions (hizb), and each hizb into four arbā'.⁶⁷ In addition, signs were introduced for all the above-mentioned innovations. The signs were introduced in different colors into the maṣāhif in their manuscript forms.

However, these colored signs, which existed as long as the *maṣāḥif* were written by hand, could not continue with the appearance of printed

^{57. &}quot;The Textual History of the Qur'an," Journal of Middle Eastern Society (Spring 1947):45.

^{58.} See below.

^{59.} Ibid.

^{60.} See page 68 of this chapter.

^{61.} Ibn 'Abd al Hakam, Futūh Misr wa Akhbāruhā, 117-118.

^{62.} See page 68 of this study.

^{63.} Al Muhkam, 16-17.

^{64.} Tārīkh al Mushaf al Sharīf, 78.

^{65.} Ibid., 17.

^{66.} Ibid., 14-15.

^{67.} Al Burhān, 1:250; Tārīkh al Mushaf al Sharīf, 78.

texts because of the difficulty in dealing with them in the printing press. Moreover, certain additions/signs were introduced in printed maṣāḥif, for example, the signs of the six kinds of awqāf al tilāwah (pauses) and sajdat al tilāwah, which were initiated by the Egyptian editorial committees and followed by other committees of maṣāḥif. 69

The calligraphy of the *maṣāḥif* remained unchanged in the *kūfic* form until the late fourth century A.H. ⁷⁰ A new development in this field was the introduction of *khaṭṭ al thuluth* and then *naskh*, which eventually dominated. ⁷¹ *Khaṭṭ al naskh* is considered the most beautiful one for the *maṣāḥif*. Other kinds, like *ruq'ah*, *diwānī*, *fārisī*, *siyāqah*, and *shikastah*, are unsuitable for the *maṣāḥif*, because the rules dictate that they should not be vocalized, while the *maṣāḥif* should be vocalized to save the reader from committing errors. ⁷²

The first *muṣḥaf* was printed in Venice in 1530, but it was not distributed because the church authorities had it destroyed immediately.⁷³ The next printed *muṣḥaf* appeared in 1649 in Hamburg. Another appeared in 1698 in Padua in two large volumes under the supervision of Marracci. The *muṣḥaf* then was published under the supervision of Mawlānā 'Uthmān, in 1787, 1790, and 1798 in St. Petersburgh, and was printed in 1803, 1819, and 1839 in Kazan.⁷⁴

The mushaf was printed lithographically for the first time in Tehran in 1828 and again in Tabriz in 1833.75

Thereafter, under the supervision of Flügel, editions of the *muṣḥaf* appeared in 1834, 1842, and 1870 in Leipzig.

It was printed for the first time in India between 1280-81/1863-65 under the supervision of Hāfiz Muḥammad Makhdūm and Mawlawī Muḥammad 'Abd al Hāfiz. It was later revised by Shaykh Mawlawī Maḥbūb 'Alī.

The first Turkish printed edition of the *muṣḥaf* appeared in 1297/1879. This publication was in the calligraphy of Ḥāfiz 'Uthmān.⁷⁶ The first

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^{68.} Introduction to the editorial committee of the Mushaf al Mālik annexed to the Khātimah of the first edition of 1337 A.H.; Ma' al Maṣāḥif, 129-30.

^{69.} Ibid., Tārīkh al Muṣḥaf al Sharīf, 91-94.

^{70.} Al Kurdi, Tārīkh al Qur'ān, 160; Kashf al Zunūn, 1:710-11. Hājjī Khalifah points out (p. 711) that Abū 'Ali Ibn Muqlah (d. 328 A.H.) was the first to introduce al khaṭṭ al badī' and that he was followed by 'Ali Ibn Hilāl, who is known as Ibn al Bawwāb (d. 413 A.H.), the best calligrapher of his time. A copy of a muṣḥaf written by Ibn al Bawwāb is in the Chester Beatty Library in Dublin.

^{71.} Al Kurdì, Tārīkh al Our'ān, 410.

^{72.} Ibid.

^{73.} Al Şāliḥ, Mabāḥith fī 'Ulūm al Qur'ān, 99.

^{74.} Fandik, Kitāb Iktifā' al Qanū' bi mā Huwa Matbū', 111-12.

^{75.} Al Şāliḥ, Mabāḥith fi 'Ulūm al Qur'ān, 99.

^{76.} Fandik, Kitāb Iktifā' al Qanū' bi mā Huwa Matbū', 112.

muṣḥaf printed in perfect accordance with the 'Uthmānic orthography was published under the supervision of Shaykh Riḍwān Ibn Muḥammad al Mukhallilātī in Egypt in 1308/1886.⁷⁷

Finally, the *muṣḥaf* was printed under the supervision of the *Mashyakhat al Azhar* and the committee appointed by King Fu'ād, and its first edition appeared in 1337/1918. It has been reedited and republished several times since then. This edition is unanimously considered the best edition of the *muṣḥaf*.⁷⁸

However, all the above-mentioned editions were according to the reading of Ḥafṣ from 'Āṣim, which is the common reading throughout the Muslim world. The edition of the *muṣḥaf* according to the reading of Warsh from Nāfi' appeared for the first time in 1349/1930 in Egypt. Various editions of Warsh have been printed in *kūfic* or standard *naskh* in Morocco, Tunisia, Algeria, Nigeria, Saudi Arabia, and, recently, in Libya. This reading is second in common use after Ḥafṣ, and it is the common reading in North and West Africa and in some parts of Sudan and Egypt.

The third most common reading in some parts of North Africa is the reading of Qālūn from Nāfi'. The first printed muṣḥaf according to this reading appeared in Tunisia in 1401/1981 and then in Libya.

Finally, the *mushaf* was printed for the first time according to the reading of al Dūrī from Abū 'Amr in Sudan in 1398/1978. This reading is the most common reading in Sudan and it is used in some parts of Egypt and Chad. These four *maṣāhif* represent the common readings for public purposes in the Islamic world today. However, the remaining canonical readings are known to many readers who have graduated from the institutes of *qirā'āt* of al Azhar and of Sudan and many others.

At the present time, new means of recording have been introduced for Qur'an studies, and all canonical readings of the Qur'an have been recorded orally by famous leading *Qurrā'* in Egypt.⁸⁰

We may say, in concluding this chapter, that the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif include more than one aḥruf. The aḥruf included in the maṣāḥif are those which can be accommodated in the orthography of the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif, which correspond with the final revealed version. The written text has been recorded according to one harf, and permission to read the other various readings related only to recitation (provided that it is read as it has been taught). The maṣāḥif were not vocalized or dotted; this was

^{77.} Tārīkh al Mushaf al Sharīf, 91-92.

^{78.} Al Şālih, Mabāḥith fī 'Ulūm al Qur'ān, 100. The author, however, has wrongly put the date as 1342 A.H. (1923), while it is in fact 1337. See Ma' al Maṣāḥif, 103.

^{79.} Ma al Mașāḥif, 103.

For more information about this project, see al Sa'id, Al Mushaf al Murattal, 2nd ed. (Cairo: 1978).

introduced in stages, first by Abū al Aswad al Du'alī, who was asked to carry out the task when laḥn appeared, and then during the reign of 'Abd al Malik Ibn Marwān, in order to make reading easier. The orthography of the maṣāḥif remained unchanged. Printed maṣāḥif today represent the four dominant readings of Ḥafṣ, Warsh, Qālūn, and al Dūrī.



CHAPTER FOUR



THE 'UTHMANIC MASAHIF AND THE PERSONAL CODICES OF THE COMPANIONS AND THE SUCCESSORS

Many qirā'āt attributed to the Companions differ from the maṣāḥif compiled by 'Uthmān and are still to be found in old books of tafsīr and al qirā'āt al shādhdhah (anomalous readings).¹ These divergent readings are classified below.

Categories of Divergent Readings

Addition and Omission of Certain Surahs

It is related that Ubayy Ibn Ka'b added to his *muṣḥaf* the two surahs of $Qun\bar{u}t^2$ and that Ibn Mas'ūd omitted from his *muṣḥaf* three surahs: the $F\bar{a}tihah$ and the $Mu'awwidhat\bar{a}n$ (the two final surahs).

The following views and interpretations have been brought to bear on the discussion of this problem:

- 1. One group of scholars considers the story untrue and fabricated.4
- 2. Another explanation of this problem is that Ubayy and Ibn Mas'ūd were confused, since they first heard the Prophet recite qunūt in the prayers, particularly in the witr prayer, the most important sunnah after the obligatory five daily prayers, and that Ubayy came to believe that they were from the Qur'an. Ibn Mas'ūd, on the other hand, thought that the last two surahs of the mushaf were not from the

^{1.} See, for example, al Țabari, Tafsır; al Zamakhshari, Al Kashshāf; Ibn Jinni, Al Muḥtasib fi Shawādhdh al Qirā'āt; Ibn Khālawayh, Al Mukhtaşar fi Shawādhdh al Qirā'āt.

^{2.} Muqaddimatān, 75; Itqān, 1:182.

^{3.} Muqaddimatān, 75; Itgān, 1:183.

See, for example, Ibn Ḥazm, Al Fiṣāl Min al Milal wa al Nihal, 2:77; Muqaddimat Kitāb al Mabānī, 75; Itqān, 1:220-21.

Our'an because he saw the Prophet recite them as an incantation for al Hasan and al Husayn.5 However, this interpretation is rejected by certain scholars on various grounds. The author of Kitāb al Mabānī states that Ubavv's profound knowledge of the Our'an would have enabled him to distinguish what is the Our'an from what is not. This is supported by the fact that the transmission of airā'ah from him to the A'immah (leading experts in qirā'ah) does not mention that Ubayy taught them qunut as part of the Our'an. Ibn al Baqillani suggests that Ubavy might have written aunūt on the back of his mushaf as a du'ā'. "as we do on our masāhif." Moreover, he studies in a special chapter the stylistic differences between the Qur'an and the sayings of the Prophet. On this basis, he concludes that it is impossible that the Companions could not distinguish between the Our'an and what is not the Our'an and that the number of surahs was known to them.9 Indeed. many authorities confirm that what is attributed to Ubayy is no more than du'ā,' and they call it Du'ā' al Qunūt.10

- Certain scholars maintain that Ibn Mas'ūd did not write those surahs 3. because they were memorized by all Muslims, even the children. Thus there was no fear that they might be forgotten. Otherwise, as the author of Kitāb al Mabānī states, how could Ibn Mas'ūd, with his wide knowledge, not be aware of the most famous, the most widely known, and the easiest surahs of the Qur'an?" However, Ibn al Anbari is reported to have rejected this view on the grounds that Ibn Mas'ud included in his mushaf short surahs like al Kawthar (108), al Nasr (110), and al Ikhlās (112), which are similar in length to al Mu'awwidhatān, 12 However, it is understandable, in his opinion, that Ibn Mas'ūd did not write the Fātihah, which could not be forgotten, because it is recited in all prayers and rak'ahs. 13 This is supported by Ibn Mas'ūd's response when he was asked why he did not write it in his mushaf. He answered: "If I had written it, I would have written it with every sūrah," meaning—as Ibn al Anbari interprets this—that a portion of the Our'an is recited during every salāt and that this must be preceded by the Fātiḥah."
- 4. The author of Kitāb al Mabānī states that Ibn Mas'ūd may have omitted the surahs because he wanted to write only what he heard direct-

^{5.} Qurțubī, 1:53, 20:251; Muqaddimatān, 75; Ibn al Băqillānī, l'jāz al Qur'ān, 291.

^{6.} Muqaddimatān, 75.

^{7.} I'jāz al Qur'ān, 291-92.

^{8.} Ibid., 291-97.

^{9.} Ibid., 292.

See, for example, Muqātil, Tafsīr al Khams Mi'at Āyah, 5; al Akhfash, Ma'ānī al Qur'ān, 2:551.

^{11.} Muqaddimatān, 96-97; Qurţubī, 20:251.

^{12.} Qurtubī, 20:251.

^{13.} Ibid., 1:53.

^{14.} Ibid.

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ly from the Prophet.¹⁵ However, this view seems not to be sound for the reason that Ibn Mas'ūd himself is reported to have said, "I have been taught seventy surahs directly from the mouth of the Prophet . . .," which indicates that he learned the rest of the surahs from other Companions. Thus, his muṣḥaf contains both the surahs he heard from the Prophet and those that he learned from the Companions.

- 5. Al Qurtūbī attributes to Yazīd Ibn Hārūn the view that Ibn Mas'ūd died before he had completed memorizing all the surahs. However, al Qurtūbī objects to this view, 17 which indeed has no evidence to support it. The alleged exclusion of these surahs from the *muṣḥaf* of Ibn Mas'ūd does not mean that they were not memorized by him for, as is well known, they are among the shortest and easiest surahs of the Our'an.
- 6. Furthermore, Ibn al Bāqillānī states that all these riwāyahs are isolated reports that should not be regarded as reliable. In addition, he considers all differences attributed to Ibn Mas'ūd as false and related by ignorant (people), although he does not deny that Ibn Mas'ūd, like any other hāfiz, might fall into error in certain hurūf. He adds that if Ibn Mas'ūd had denied these two sealing surahs, the Companions would have disagreed with him, and that this would have become widely known, since lesser quarrels have been reported to us. Also, he says that the consensus of the Companions on the compilation of the muṣḥaf cannot be impugned by these anomalous invented narrations.¹⁸

Finally, a considerable number of *aḥādīth* refer to the position of these surahs,¹⁹ the story behind their revelation,²⁰ and, above all, to the recitation of them by the Prophet while at home and traveling,²¹ which indicate that Ibn Mas'ūd was aware of them. Thus, these narrations attributed to Ubayy Ibn Ka'b and 'Abd Allāh Ibn Mas'ūd cannot be regarded as authentic.

Interpolation of Explanatory Material

The interpolation of certain explanatory material, consisting of one or more words, into the text of the Qur'an is attributed to the personal codices of some of the Companions. Some examples are listed and discussed as follows:

^{15.} Muqaddimatān, 97.

^{16.} Ibn Hanbal, al Musnad, 5:258-59; Fath al Bâri, 9:46-47.

^{17.} Qurtubī, 1:53, 58, 20:251.

^{18.} I'jāz al Qur'ān, 291-92.

See, for example, al Albāni, Al Aḥādīth al Saḥīḥah, 2:582-83, hadith no. 891; 249, hadith no. 645: Sunan Abī Dāwūd, 2:152-53.

^{20.} Sunan Abī Dāwūd, 2:152-53; al Suyūfi, Lubāb al Nuqūl fi Asbāb al Nuzūl, 238-39.

^{21.} Sunan Abī Dāwūd, 2:152.

Ibn al Zubayr is reported to have added the words ويستعينون بالله على ما J. Ibn al Zubayr is reported to have added the words (3:104).
 كنتم خير أمة أخرجت للناس تأمرون بالمعروف وتنهون عن المنكر after أصابهم

The author of the *Kitāb al Mabānī* says that this addition, if it is accepted as authentic, is certainly a gloss by Ibn al Zubayr and his own words, and that some narrators were confused and incorporated it into the text. He supports this assertion by stating that these same words were attributed to 'Uthmān himself, which suggests that he recited them in his preaching as an explanation only and not as part of the Qur'an (since otherwise he would have added them to his own *Muṣḥaf al Imām*).²³

Ibn Abbas is reported to have added the words من نفسي after إن الساعة after التية أكاد أخفيها (20:15). This is also attributed to Ubayy Ibn Ka'b with the further words من نفسي فكيف أطلعكم عليها

The author of *Kitāb al Mabānī* states that if the addition is regarded as authentic, it is an explanatory addition to the text and that certain narrators were confused and incorporated them into the text. Fur-thermore, the *isnād* of the *riwāyah* to Ubayy is *maqtū* (interrupted), and the transmission of the *qirā'ah* from Ubayy to Abū 'Amr and Ibn Kathīr invalidates it.²⁶

 'Alī is reported to have added the words ونوائب الدهر immediately after والعصر (103:1).²⁷

The author of *Kitāb al Mabānī* argues that this attribution to 'Alī is invalid, first, on the ground that the *qirā'ah* of Abū 'Abd al Raḥmān al Sulamī (the transmitter of the *qirā'ah* from 'Alī, his close student, and teacher of al Ḥasan and al Ḥusayn), corresponds to *Muṣḥaf al Imām*, in which there is no mention of this addition. Second, if the attribution to 'Alī were authentic, he would have incorporated it into the text and would not have abandoned these words, the result of which would have been to decrease the reward of the reciter and alter a meaning desired by Allah. This, therefore, suggests that the narrator either lied or forgot. Third, we must take into account the unanimous agreement of the Muslims on *Mushaf al Imām*, so that if anyone alleges any single addition or omission that contradicts the consensus, it is no different from claiming that the obligatory

^{22.} Al Maşāḥif, 82-82; Muqaddimatān, 102; Materials, 227.

^{23.} Materials, 227.

^{24.} Ibid., 201.

^{25.} Ibid., 146.

^{26.} Muqaddimatān, 102.

^{27.} Materials, 193.

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prayers are fifty, that marrying nine wives is allowed, or that fasting more than the month of Ramaḍān is a duty.²⁸

4. Sa'd Ibn Abī Waqqāş is reported to have added the two words من أم after من أخ أن أخ أن أخت أن أخت الم

This addition, as al Suyūṭū points out, is regarded as *tafsīr*. However, it is unanimously agreed that this *tafsīr* is correct. It is unanimously agreed that this *tafsīr* is correct.

5. Ubayy Ibn Ka'b is reported to have added the sentence ولو حميتم المسجد الحرام إذ جعل الذين كفروا في قلوبهم الحمية حمية الجاهلية (48:26).32

'Umar objected to this reading of Ubayy and asked Zayd to read it. He read it according to the general reading, after which he agreed with Zayd. It is also reported that Ubayy defended his reading and that 'Umar agreed to let him read it accordingly.³³ The author of *Kitāb al Mabānī* questions this report as one that cannot be reconciled with the Book received by the Prophet, which was preserved and transmitted from him. In addition, Ubayy might have reported that reading before its abrogation, particularly before the final revealed version. This is supported by the transmission of a *qirā'ah* from Ubayy to Abū Ja'far, Ibn Kathīr, and Abū 'Amr, who transmitted from Ubayy the ways of reading in *madd* (prolongation) and *shadd* (doubling), but did not report this addition. Furthermore, he points out, this addition differs from the Qur'an stylistically. Finally, he asks how it could be that 'Umar was not aware of this addition, since he heard this surah directly from the Prophet on the occasion of Hudaybiyyah.³⁴

 'Abd Allāh Ibn Mas'ūd is reported to have added the word הזדואםוד to יסוון לולף וואס (5:91).

Discussing this example, al Ghazzālī argues that these readings differ from the *muṣḥaf* and are to be attributed to the Companions. They are not part of the Qur'an, because the Qur'an is not substantiated except by *tawātur*. He attributes the above reading to Ibn Mas'ūd and regards it as not *mutawātir*, and therefore as not from the Qur'an. Consequently, it

^{28.} Muqaddimatān, 103-04.

^{29.} Itgan, 1:216.

^{30.} Ibid.

^{31.} Nashr, 1:28.

^{32.} Al Hākim, Al Mustadrak 'alā al Şaḥīḥayn, 2:225-26.

^{33.} Ibid.

^{34.} Muqaddimatān, 91-93.

^{35.} Qurtubī, 2:283.

should be considered as his interpretation of the verse and his *madhhab*. He quotes Abū Ḥanīfah as having adopted this interpretation as *wājib* (obligation). Although Abū Ḥanīfah did not accept this addition as part of the Qur'an, he accepted it as an isolated report that, in his view, was sufficient evidence for practice. Nevertheless, al Ghazzali objects to Abū Ḥanīfah's view and concludes that this addition is not even acceptable as an isolated report for practice, because it has not been reported to us as a sunnah heard from the Prophet.³⁶

7. Among the successors, al Ḥasan al Baṣrī is reported to have added the words وإن منكم إلا واردها 10 الورود النُّخول (19:71).37

Al Suyūṭū quotes Ibn al Anbārā as having said that this addition is al Hasan's own interpretation of the meaning of the word المُرُود, but that some narrators mistakenly incorporated it into the text. Concerning this general problem of the interpolation of explanatory material, Ibn al Jazarā points out that the Companions may have written interpretations in their readings, although they were sure of what they had been taught as the Qur'an. In addition, he states that it is not true that the Companions allowed reading of the Qur'an by meaning as opposed to the literal text. Finally, Abū Ḥayyān maintains that most readings attributed to Ibn Mas'ūd are suspected of being Shī'ah inventions.

Word Order Differences

while the words in the *muṣḥaf* are وجاءت سكرة الوت بالوت الوت بالوت (50:19). Although certain scholars quoted it as an example of one of the seven *aḥruf*, A'ishah reported that she heard her father Abū Bakr in his final illness reciting this verse in the same way as it occurs in the *muṣḥaf*. Another example of this is what is attributed to Ibn 'Abbās, namely, that he read إذا جاء نصر الله والنصر (90:1). While in the *muṣḥaf* it is found as إذا جاء نصر الله والنصر (90:1). However, Ibn 'Abbās is reported to have interpreted this surah and read it in accordance with the *muṣḥaf*.

^{36.} Al Mustasfa, 1:102.

^{37.} Itgān, 1:216.

^{38.} Ibid.

^{39.} Nashr, 1:321-30; Munjid, 17-18. For more discussion, see Chapter 7.

^{40.} Al Bahr al Muhît, 1:161.

^{41.} Nashr, 1:26-27.

^{42.} See Chapter 1, 15-16.

^{43.} Qurtubī, 17:12-13.

^{44.} Materials, 208.

^{45.} Qurtubī, 20:232.

THE 'UTHMANIC MAŞAHIF AND THE PERSONAL CODICES

Changes in the Consonantal Outlines of Words Without Changing Their Meaning

For example, Ibn Mas'ūd is reported to have read the word معيدة (36:29) as رقية, this being quoted by certain scholars as an example of one of the seven aḥruf. However, in these scholars' view this reading was eventually disallowed because of the abrogation of certain aḥruf.

'Abd Allāh Ibn Mas'ūd is reported to have read the word كالعبن (101:4) as عالمضراً 'Umar is also reported to have read the word (62:9) as كالمشراء 'and Ubayy is reported to have read lilladhīna āmanū anzurūnā (57:13) as الذين أمنوا المهلونا أخرونا ارتبونا '50 These reports were quoted by certain scholars as examples of an a harf that was abrogated.51

Changes in the Consonantal Outline and Meaning of Words

For example, 'Alī is reported to have read the word وَمُلِّمِ of (56:29) as وَمُلِّمِ This was quoted by certain scholars as an example of one of the seven ahruf which was abrogated.⁵³

In all of these cases, as we have seen in Chapter 3, it is arguable whether a certain harf was abrogated during the lifetime of the Prophet or whether the permission to read in this way was removed when 'Uthmān issued his maṣāḥif.' Also, these synonyms may be fictitious. Whatever the case, the reading was not left to individual choice but was subject to the riwāyah.

As regards the additional interpretations that were attributed to the personal codices, Goldziher expressed doubts about their being part of the original text. He maintained that it is not known yet whether they were original and that they were allowed into the text only as interpretations.⁵⁵ On the same page, however, he contradicts himself when he mentions that certain later scholars considered these additional interpretations as part of the text. Goldziher supports this view by arguing that the Companions were reported as having permitted the writing of this kind of additional interpretation in the *muṣḥaf* provided that they did not regard them as

^{46.} Materials, 78.

^{47.} See Chapter 1, 12-13, 15-16.

^{48.} Materials, 111.

^{49.} Ibid., 221.

^{50.} Ibid., 169.

^{51.} See Chapter 1, 12-13, 15-16.

^{52.} Materials, 191.

^{53.} See Chapter 1, 12-13, 15-16.

^{54.} See pp. 66-67 of this book.

^{55.} Madhāhib al Tafsīr al Islāmī, 21.

Qur'an.⁵⁶ However, the additional interpretations are not part of the original text of the Qur'an and are not to be confused with the *muṣḥaf*, since it was stated clearly that the condition for using them was only as *tafsīr* and not as Qur'an.⁵⁷

One hundred and twenty-three differences have been claimed between the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif and all personal codices of the Companions. In nine places, two, three, or four personal codices agree with the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif, but this is the maximum extent of agreement among them. Furthermore, Ibn Mas'ūd is reported to have been the sole reference for 102 out of the total number.⁵⁸

It is argued that the Qur'an contains over 77,000 words and, therefore, the number of words in the personal codices that differed from the 'Uthmānic *maṣāḥif* is thus very small.⁵⁹ In this connection, al Jāḥiz is quoted as having said the following:

Verily there are certain people who cast doubt on the trustworthiness of the Qur'an and search for an addition or omission in it without the consent of the Prophet and consensus of the Com-panions. However, if someone had inserted a poetic verse in the poetry of Abū al Shamaqmaq, he would have been notorious among the *Ruwāt*, so how about the Book of Allāh Almighty, which is transmitted in tawātur and sound chains and is recited day and night?⁶⁰

Differences Between the Maṣāḥif of the Amṣār

The maṣāḥif that 'Uthmān sent to the major cities are reported to have differed in certain aḥruf regarding the addition or omission of certain letters or particles. In this respect, it is said that the muṣḥaf of Kūfah differs from that of Baṣrah in five aḥruf. For example, in 21:4 we find written in the Kūfic muṣḥaf, while in the Baṣran we find is. Also, the Madīnan muṣḥaf is reported to have differed from those of Iraq in twelve aḥruf. For example, in 2:132 in the Madīnan muṣḥaf we find وأومى, while in the Iraqi we find روومى.

Finally, the maṣāḥif of Syria and Iraq are said to have differed in forty aḥruf. For example, in 5:54 we find يَرْتَنَدُ , while in the latter we find مُنْدُ . di However, all are differences in letters between the maṣāḥif,

^{56.} Ibid.

^{57.} Al Qirā'āt wa al Lahajāt, 185.

^{58.} Ma' al Masāhif, 147.

^{59.} Ibid.

^{60.} Ibid.

^{61.} Mugaddimatān, 117-21; Al Mugni, 108-24.

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except for two examples, which differ in particles. The first one is in 9:100, where the word is found in the *muṣḥaf* of Makkah but is omitted in the other *maṣāḥif*. The second example is in 7:23, where the word is omitted from the *maṣāḥif* of Madīnah and Shām, although it exists in the *maṣāḥif* of other cities. The differences of letters can be classified into various categories as follows:

- 1. Morphological change---in 2:132: وَوَمنَى and وَاومنى and يَرْتَدُ and يَرْتَدُ and يَرْتَدُ in 5:54.
- Replacement of conjunction—in 91:15: فَلاَ يَخَافُ and فَلاَ يَخَافُ and فَلاَ يَخَافُ .
 وَإِنْ يُظْهِرَ and أَوْ أَنْ يُظْهِرَ 40:26
- 3. Omission of conjunction—in 5:53: منيقُولُ الذينَ آمنوا
- 4. Consonantal differences—in 10:22: يُسْيِّرُكُمْ and يُنْشُرُكُم
- 5. Omission of pronoun suffixes—in 36:35: وَمَا عَمَلَتُ and وَمَا عَمَلَتُ
- 6. Grammatical change—in 55:78: ذَا الجَلال and مَوْ الْجَلالِ
- 7. Singular and dual alternation—in 43:38: إِذَا جَاءَنَا and حَتِّى إِذَا جَاءَنَا .
- 8. Singular and plural alternation—in 10:33: كُمُةُ and مُقَتْ كُلُمَاتُ رَبُّكَ
- . قُلُ and قَالَ سُبُحَانَ رَبِّي 33: Verbal change—in 18:93

Al Dāni maintains that all of the above-mentioned differences between the *maṣāḥif* are correct and authentic, for they have been revealed and heard from the Prophet. He adds that when 'Uthmān compiled the *maṣāḥif*, it was not possible to accommodate all these readings in one *muṣḥaf*, and so he distributed them in the *maṣāḥif*.⁶⁴

Moreover, the author of $Kit\bar{a}b$ al $Mab\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$ has studied all examples linguistically and concludes that they are correct and sound. In addition, he states that the differences were intentional to substantiate all ahruf revealed and heard from the Prophet.⁶⁵

Thus, research confirms that the personal codices attributed to certain Companions and their Followers have been transmitted in unauthentic chains, differ from each other, and contradict the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif. Additional interpolations are no more than explanatory material that they added to the Qur'anic text as their own personal codices and because they were sure of not confusing them with the original text. The reports that

^{62.} Al Mugni, 11; Fath al Bārī, 9:30.

^{63.} Al Muqni, 115.

^{64.} Ibid., 123.

^{65.} Muqaddimatān, 121-33.

'Abd Allāh Ibn Mas'ūd omitted from his muṣḥaf the first and the last two surahs and that Ubayy Ibn Ka'b wrote in his muṣḥaf al Qunūt as a surah are groundless.

Finally, the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif are reported to have differed in certain letters or particles, consisting of the addition or omission of letters, except in two places where huwa and min are sometimes included and sometimes omitted. These accounts are all authentic in their transmission, and it has been proved linguistically that all are acceptable and fluent Arabic in the Arabic version of the Qur'an.

CHAPTER 5



THE LANGUAGE OF THE QUR'AN

This chapter discusses what type of Arabic the Qur'anic text, with its variant readings, represents. Rather than undertake a thorough grammatical and lexicographical analysis of the Qur'an, the purpose here is to examine the information provided by classical Arab scholars as well as the theories of modern scholars. The goal is to determine whether the language of the Qur'an represents Qurayshī Arabic (whatever may be understood by this term), whether it is in standard Arabic or poetic koine but reflecting Hijāzī features, or whether it contains a number of fluent dialects in addition to that of Quraysh. Although the available data are not sufficient to allow more than a tentative conclusion, the discussion will provide a better understanding of the problem of the seven aḥruf.

The Qur'an refers to the language in which it has been revealed as Arabic, without reference to a particular dialect of the Arabic language. A considerable number of verses support this fact. The following are a few examples:

- 1. "We have sent it down as an Arabic Qur'an in order that ye may learn wisdom." (12:2)
- 2. "Verily this is a revelation from the Lord of the Worlds: the spirit of Faith and Truth came down with it to your heart and mind, that you may admonish in clear Arabic language." (26:192-95)
- 3. "[It is] a Qur'an in Arabic without any crookedness [therein] in order that they may guard against evil." (39:28)
- 4. "A book whereof the verses are explained in detail—a Qur'an in Arabic for people who understand." (41:3)
- 5. "We have made it a Qur'an in Arabic that you may be able to understand and learn wisdom." (43:3)

Ibn al Anbārī (328/939) states that the Qur'an has been revealed in the most eloquent, purest, and clearest language of the Arabs, since Our'an

4:3 says: "We have made it a Qur'an in Arabic that ye may be able to understand [and learn wisdom]." Also in 41:44 Allah says: "Had we sent this as a Qur'an [in a language] other than Arabic, they would have said: 'Why are not its verses explained in detail? What! [A Book] not in Arabic and [a Messenger] an Arab?' Say: 'It is a guide and healing to those who believe.'" The Qur'an includes no reference to any particular dialect; however, in the sunnah there are a few statements attributed to certain Companions that refer to the issue of dialect. They include the following:

- 1. 'Uthmān is reported to have commanded the committee appointed by him to compile the Qur'an, all of whom were Qurayshī except Zayd Ibn Thābit, saying: "If you disagree with Zayd Ibn Thābit on any point in the Qur'an, write it in the dialect of Quraysh, as the Qur'an was revealed in their tongue." He is also reported to have made the same statement when the scribes differed in writing the word al Tābūt عنوال. as to whether to write it with final hā' or tā' (eventually it was written with tā' according to the dialect of Quraysh).
- 2. 'Umar is reported to have written to Ibn Mas'ūd that the Qur'an had been revealed in the Qurayshī tongue and that he should teach people accordingly, and not according to the language of Hudhayl.' It is reported elsewhere that 'Umar said that the scribes of the maṣāḥif should be only from Quraysh and Thaqīf.'
- 3. 'Abd Allāh Ibn Mas'ūd is reported to have preferred the scribes of the maṣāḥif to be from Muḍar.'

Most scholars of the classical period agree that the Qur'an has been revealed in the dialect (lughah) of Quraysh, a view shared by most contemporary scholars. However, what is meant by the term lughah is not always clear. Does this refer to an actual dialect in the full sense of the term, or to a Qurayshī version of a standard literary language, which exhibits certain Qurayshī features in terms of phonology, morphology and vocabulary? Some scholars have claimed that classical Arabic ($fush\bar{a}$) is identical to Qurayshī speech.

The ancient scholars used the term *lughah* in different contexts to mean *lahjah* (dialect), as Abū 'Amr Ibn al 'Alā' did when he distinguished between *lughah* and 'arabiyyah (the latter is what agreed with the majority, while he called what did not agree with them *lughāt*). In this connec-

^{1.} İḍāḥ al Waqf wa al Ibtidā', 1:12.

^{2.} Bukhārī, 6:479; Al Murshid al Wājīz, 92.

^{3.} Fath al Bārī, 9:20; Kitāb al Zīnah, 1:141.

^{4.} Īḍāḥ al Wagf wa al Ibtidā', 1:13; Al Muḥtasib, 1:343; Fatḥ al Bārī, 9:27.

^{5.} Abū 'Ubayd, Faḍā'il al Qur'ān, 310; Al Ṣāḥibī, 28; Al Muzhir, 1:211.

^{6.} Abū 'Ubavd, Fadā'il al Our'ān, 310.

^{7.} Al Zubaydī, Ţabaqāt al Naḥwiyyīn wa al Lughawiyyīn, 34.

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tion, al Farrā' says about the two ways of pronouncing "iswah or uswah, "wa humā lughatān," (they are no more than dialects). The ancient scholars also used the word lisān (tongue) to mean lughah, which may be interpreted as lahjah (dialect), and they interpreted the word laḥn to mean lughah (lahjah). Sībawayh, however, used the word lughah to mean an acceptable form of 'arabiyyah. For example, he says: "Lughah li ahl al Ḥijāz wa hiya 'arabiyyah jā'izah" ("[It is] the lughah of the people of Hijaz and it is permissible Arabic.") and "Wa hiya al lughah al 'arabiyyah al qadīmah al jayyidah" ("It is good, ancient Arabic lughah.")."

According to the *Ruwāt*, the word *lughāt* means exceptional and rare forms, and differences in the word as to its meaning, morphology, and grammar.¹²

Modern Arab scholars, explain what is meant by *lughah* and *lahjah* more carefully. Al Ghamrāwī states that the dominant view among the philologists is that *lughat Quraysh* represents no more than a dialect of a common language, which is the existing Arabic language.¹³ Hammūdah, in his *Al Qirā'āt wa al Lahajāt*,¹⁴ studies both terms using modern linguistic methodology. According to him, *lahjah* refers to pronunciation and phonetics.¹⁵ This is mainly a matter of accent, although minor variations in word forms or meaning are also encompassed in this term. For the purpose of the following discussion, the term *lughah* will be regarded as meaning a form that is acceptable Arabic but not used by the majority. An important point is that the concept of dialect, as it exists today, was not recognized by early Arabic writers and that attempts (such as that of Rabin)¹⁶ to reconstruct dialects are obscurist and likely to produce scant results.

By examining the views of the scholars, this chapter will reach some conclusions on this question.

The view that the Qur'an has been revealed in the *lughah* (dialect) of Quraysh is based on the following arguments:

1. The first people addressed by the Qur'an were those of Quraysh, who easily understood the language of the Qur'an.

^{8.} Al Farra', Ma'ānī al Qur'ān, 2:339.

^{9.} Ibn Abī Dāwūd, Kitāb al Maṣāḥif, 32.

^{10.} Al Kitāb, 2:416.

^{11.} Ibid., 424.

^{12.} Al Rāfi'i, Tārīkh Ādāb al 'Arab, 1:135.

^{13.} Al Nagd al Tahlili, 210.

^{14. 1}st ed. (Cairo: 1368/1948).

^{15.} Ibid., 4-5.

^{16.} Ancient West Arabian.

In this connection, certain verses are quoted and interpreted in favor of Quraysh: "We have sent not an apostle except [to teach] in the language of his [own] people to make [things] clear to them," (14:4), and also: "And admonish thy nearest kinsmen." (26:214)

- 2. The Prophet himself was a Qurayshī and his sayings, accordingly, correspond with the language of the Our'an.¹⁸
- 3. The style of the sayings attributed to the Companions and the people of their time belonging to Quraysh is said to have agreed with the language of the Qur'an.¹⁹
- 4. In addition, the consensus of all Arabs after Islam and the agreement among the scholars, narrators, *Muḥaddithūn*, and *Mufassirūn* is that the Qur'an has been revealed in the Qurayshī dialect and that, despite the quarrels and political disputes among the tribes and the existence of chauvinism on the part of Himyar and the non-Arabs, no objection to this dialect was ever raised.²⁰

The reason the language of the Quraysh has this superior position is as follows:

1. The language is of high quality and fluency.

In this connection, the Prophet is reported to have said that "I am the most eloquent of you because I belong to Quraysh and was brought up in Sa'd Ibn Bakr (the tribe of Ḥalīmah, Muhammad's wetnurse)." Qatādah wrote that Quraysh chose the best of the Arabic language, so that their tongue became the best of all, and that, accordingly, the Qur'an has been revealed in the Qurayshī tongue. Also, al Fārābī is reported to have said that Quraysh were the best among the Arabs in choosing the most eloquent utterances: the easiest to pronunce and hear and the clearest in expression.

This superior Arabic language is said to have been acquired by Quraysh as a result of their communication with other tribes in the course of their conflicts and cultural gatherings at 'Ukāz and other markets. Also, the Arabs regularly visited Makkah for religious purposes and trade.²⁴ Ibn

^{17.} Mushkil al Āthār, 4:185; Itqān, 1:135.

^{18.} Fī al Adab al Jāhilī, 110.

^{19.} Ibid.

^{20.} Ibid., 110-11.

^{21.} Abū 'Ubayd, Fadā'il al Qur'ān, 309; Ibn al Bāqillānī, Nukat al Intisār, 386; Al Muzhir, 1.210

^{22.} Lisān al 'Arab, 1:588.

^{23.} Al Muzhir, 1:211; Al Igtirāh, 22.

Al 'Aşr al Jāhili, 133; Fì 'Ilm al Lughah al 'Amm, 222; al Rāfi'i, Tārīkh Adāb al 'Arab, 1:85-90 (2nd ed., 1940).

THE LANGUAGE OF THE QUR'AN

Fāris states in his Al Ṣāḥibī that delegations on pilgrimages and for other purposes visited Makkah and that they would ask Quraysh to arbitrate between them because of their eloquence and perfect language. Hence, Quraysh used to chose the best of other tribes' speech patterns and poems and add them to their tongue. By doing so and by enhancing their innate ability, they became the most eloquent of the Arabs.²⁵

2. The second reason given for Quraysh having this position is that they were far away from neighboring non-Arab states.

This distance, as Ibn Khaldūn puts it, protected Quraysh from non-Arab influences. According to philologists holding this view, the acceptability of the dialects of the Arabs was in proportion to their proximity to Quraysh. Al Suyūtī quotes al Fārābī as having pointed out that the philologists ignored the Arab tribes that lived near foreign nations. 27

3. Third, Quraysh were immune to pronunciation defects attributed to other dialects.

Many defects are attributed to certain tribes. For example, Abū al 'Abbās states in his Majālis Tha'lab² that Quraysh have a high standard of fluency so that they did not have the 'an'anan of Tamīm, the kashkashah of Rabī'ah, the kaskasah of Hawāzin, the taḍajju' of Qays, the 'ajrafīyyah of Dabbah, and the taltalah of Bahrā'. He gives only examples for 'an'anah and taltalah. The first example ('an'anah) is the changing of alif to 'ayn, as if to say 'anna 'abda Allāhi qā'imun for anna, while the second (taltalah) is the pronunciation of the present-tense prefixes with kasrah (as in ti'lamūna, ti'qilūna, and tisma'ūna).

Other sources cited pronunciation defects in various dialects, among them the fahfahah of Hudhayl, which is the change of hā' to 'ayn; and the wakm and wahm of Kalb, which means that the plural siffix -kum becomes -kim when the preceding vowel is kasrah. (Thus they say 'alaykim and bikim.) Wahm is the pronunciation of -hum as -him in such contexts as minhim, 'anhim, and baynihim in all cases. The 'aj'ajah of Qudaah consists of changing the final -ī to -ij, as in substitution tamīmīj for tamīmī. The istintā' of Sa'd Ibn Bakr, Hudhayl, al Azd, Qays, and the Anṣār is the changing of 'ayn to nūn in the word antā for a'tā. Watm in the language of Yemen is the pronunciation of sīn as tā'; for example, al nāt for al nās. The lakhlakhāniyyah of Shihr and Oman is saying masha Allah for

^{25.} Al Sāḥibī, 33-34.

^{26.} Al Muqaddimah, 635.

^{27.} Al Muzhir, 1:212; Al Iqtirāḥ, 23.

^{28.} Edited by 'Abd al Salām Hārūn, 3rd ed. (Cairo: Dār al Ma'ārif, 1969).

^{29.} Ibid., 1:81.

māshā'a Allāh. The tumṭumāniyyah of Ḥimyar is the use of the definite article -am instead of -al, as in ṭāba am hawā'u for ṭāba al hawā'u.³⁰ Some of these features still exist in parts of the former Arabia. One example is the kashkashah (i.e., the pronunciation of the feminine suffix -ik as -ish), because in Ṣan'ā' and other parts of Yemen it is still in use.³¹ Another is the tumṭumānnyyah, which is said to still be in use in Ḥāshid, Arḥab, Khalwān, and other parts of Yemen. One hadith is quoted as using -am (i.e., "Laysa min am birri im siyāmu fī im safar").³²

The following factors contributed to the superior features of the Qurayshī language:

- 1. The Arabs made pilgrimages to Makkah where Quraysh were the servants of the House and the pilgrims and had custody of the Ka'bah. Hence, Quraysh were favored and respected by all Arab tribes.³³
- 2. Quraysh were tradesmen and merchants who traveled to different parts of Arabia, to Syria in the north, and to Yemen in the south. Makkah itself was the commercial center of Arabia. The Qur'an mentions this in surah 106: "For the covenants of security and safeguard (enjoyed) by the Quraysh. Their covenants (covering) journeys by winter and summer."³⁴
- 3. Subsequently, Quraysh acquired political power and authority among other Arab tribes. Abū Bakr is reported to have addressed the *Anṣār* in the following words: "The Arabs only follow Quraysh." 36

Some modern scholars believe that the richness and purity of the Qurayshī language and the political prestige of Quraysh led to Qurayshī Arabic becoming accepted at an early date as the literary standard throughout Arabia.³⁷

Supposedly, Qurayshī Arabic was dominant a long time before Islam, and became the language of culture for all Arabs more than 100 or 150 years before the Hijrah³⁸ (i.e., from about 500 c.E.). Hence, the Qur'an was understood by the Arabs irrespective of their different tribes.³⁹

Al Rāfi'ī asserts that the Arabic language has passed through three stages in its development toward fluency. In its first stage, it was developed

^{30.} Al Muzhir, 1:221-23.

^{31.} Lahajāt al Yaman Qadīman wa Ḥadīthan, 47-48.

^{32.} Ibid., 20.

^{33.} Al Ṣāḥibī, 33; al Rāfīn, Tārīkh Ādāb al 'Arab, 1:85 (2nd ed., 1940).

^{34.} Wāfi, Figh al Lughah, 109; Fī al Adab al Jāhilī, 111-12.

^{35.} Ibid.

^{36.} Al Bayān wa al Tabyīn, 4:10.

^{37.} Wafi, Figh al Lughah, 109-10.

^{38.} Tārīkh Ādāb al 'Arab, 1:86.

^{39.} Hasan 'Awn, Dirāsāt fi-al Lughah wa al Naḥw, 58.

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by a single tribe. Then its development was taken up by all the tribes collectively. Finally, Quraysh alone is to be credited with having brought the language to its final and most important stage of development. He argues that Quraysh acquired this position because its members lived in the vicinity of the Ka'bah and met pilgrims, as a result of which they heard others and selected the best of other tongues. Al Rāfi'ī concludes that it was almost miraculous that this development started 100 or 150 years before the Hijrah.⁴⁰

However, certain scholars object to the view that the Qur'an has been revealed only in the *lughah* of Quraysh. They believe that much evidence shows features of various other dialects in the Qur'an. For instance, certain Companions among Quraysh are reported not to have known the exact meaning of some Qur'anic words. Thus 'Abd Allāh Ibn 'Abbās is reported to have said: "I did not to know the meaning of [the word *fāṭir* in] *fāṭir al samāwāt* until I met two bedouin quarreling over a well. One of them said, 'Anā faṭartuhā' (I began [or started] it)." Ibn 'Abbās is reported to have said, "I did not to know the meaning of al faṭtāḥ until I heard the daughter of Dhū Yazin saying to an opponent of hers 'halumma fāṭihnī' (come to arbitration with me). Then I knew it."

Abū Bakr and 'Umar both are reported not to have known the meaning of the word abb in 80:31, "wa fākihatan wa abban." In reference to this, a number of books and treatises were composed by early scholars, among which are Kitāb al Lughāt fī al Qur'an (being the version of Ibn Ḥasnūn on the authority of Ibn 'Abbās) and Mā Warad fī al Qur'ān min Lughāt al Qabā'il (by Abū 'Ubayd al Qāsim Ibn Sallām). In addition, al Nadīm states that al Farrā', Abū Zayd, al Aṣma'ī, al Haytham Ibn 'Adī, Muḥammad Ibn Yaḥyā al Qaṭī'ī, and Ibn Durayd composed books on lughāt al Qur'ān. Al Dāwūdī, in his Ṭabaqāt al Muṭassirīn, mentions that Muḥammad Ibn Yazīd al Baṣrī has a book on lughāt al Qur'ān. This subject has been treated by al Zarkashī and al Suyūṭī, each of whom devotes a chapter to it. Al Suyūṭū's chapter is based on the work of Abū 'Ubayd. Furthermore, many more examples show the existence of grammatical features belonging to other dialects in the Qur'an, such as what is called lughat akalūnī al barā-

^{40.} Tārīkh Ādāb al 'Arab (Cairo), 1:79-86, 89-90.

^{41.} Abū 'Ubayd, Faḍā'il al Qur'ān, 314; Itqān, 2:4.

^{42.} Al Mubarrid, Al Fādil, 113-14; Itgān, 2:5.

^{43.} Itgān, 2:4.

^{44.} Edited by Şalāḥ al Din al Munajjid, 2nd ed., Beirut.

^{45.} Published with Tafsīr al Jalālayn (Cairo: 1342 A.H.).

^{46.} Al Fihrist. 38.

^{47.} Edited by 'Ali Muḥammad 'Umar, 1st ed., Cairo, 1392/1972, 2 vols.

^{48.} Ibid., 2:267.

^{49.} Al Burhān fi 'Ulūm al Qur'ān, 1:291-96; Itgān, 2:89-120.

ghīth; for example, in 21:3, "Wa asarrū al najwā al ladhīn zalamū," and in 5:71, "Thumma 'amū wa ṣammū kathīrun minhum." This ancient Semitic feature is found in the language of other Arab tribes, but the Qurayshī language was free of it. 50 Ibn al Bāqillāmī interprets the statement of 'Uthmān about the revelation of the Qur'an in the dialect of Quraysh as meaning that it was mainly but not entirely in this dialect. He cites the fact that features of other dialects exist in the Qur'an and that 43:3, "We have made it a Qur'an in Arabic," refers to all Arabs. In addition, he states that whoever maintains that the Qur'an has been revealed in a particular dialect should provide supporting evidence. He argues that if this were so other people would have said that it should be the tongue of Hāshim, since they are the nearest kinsmen of the Prophet. 51

Ibn al Bāqillārū quotes the statement attributed to the Prophet, "I am the most eloquent of you because I belong to Quraysh and was brought up in Sa'd Ibn Bakr." He comments that that does not mean that the Qur'an has been revealed in the Qurayshī language, because the Qur'an could be revealed according to the most eloquent language of the Arabs and, according to the language of those whose language is lesser in eloquence, because all varieties of Arabic used in the Qur'an are eloquent. He accepts that most of the language of the Qur'an is Qurayshī, but states that of the different tribes that recited the Qur'an before the Prophet, the Banū Tamīm were the most fluent and clear. This statement of Ibn al Bāqillārū also asserts that the Prophet accepted the *lughah* (dialect) of Tamīm and that he read the Qur'an in the dialect of Tamīm, Khuzā'ah, and others.⁵²

Ibn 'Abd al Barr supports this view, pointing out that the dialects of other tribes exist in all *qirā'āt* of the Qur'an, such as the retention of *hamz* (while Quraysh omits it).⁵³ Abū Shāmah quotes certain scholars as having said that the Qur'an has been revealed not only in the Qurayshī tongue but in those of their neighbors who were fluent speakers, while the Arabs were allowed to read the Qur'an according to their accustomed dialects.⁵⁴

He states elsewhere that the Qur'an includes all Arab dialects, because its revelation was for them all, and that they were permitted to read it according to their different dialects. Thus, the readings of the Qur'an differed. He adds that when the maṣāḥif were established, these different readings were abandoned except for those whose lughāt (i.e., dialects) corresponded with the orthography of the maṣāḥif.⁵⁵

^{50.} Ramadān 'Abd al Tawwāb, Fusūl min Figh al 'Arabiyyah, 1st ed. (Cairo: 1971), 81-82.

^{51.} Nukat al Intișār li Naql al Qur'ān, 385-86.

^{52.} Ibid., 386-87.

^{53.} Al Burhān, 1:284; Fath al Bārī, 9:27; Ibn Kathīr, Fadā'il al Qur'ān, 22; Itaān, 2:103.

^{54.} Fath al Bārī, 9:27; Al Murshid al Wājīz, 95.

^{55.} Ibrāz al Ma'ānī, 487.

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According to Ibn Mālik, the Qur'an has been revealed in the dialect of Hijāz, except for a few features that are in accordance with the practice of Tamīm, such as *idghām* (assimilation); for example, the following: "Wa man yushāqqi Allāha" (59:4) for Qurayshī yushāqiq, which was not read thus by anyone, and "Wa man yartadda minkum" (2:217) for Qurayshī yartadid.

This assimilation originated with Tamīmī and occurs only rarely, while the Ḥijāzī practice of separating consonants occurs more frequently in the Qur'an; "yartadid" (2:217), "wa al yumlil" (2:282), "yuḥbibkum" (3:31), "yumdidkum" (71:12), "yushāqiq" (4:115 and 8:13), "yuḥādid" (9:63), "fa al yumdid" (22:15), "wa aḥlul" (20:27), "isdud" (20:31) and "yaḥlil" (20:81).56

The Ḥijāzī practice of separating the consonants is considered by Sībawayh as the best ancient Arabic.⁵⁷

Moreover, all *Qurrā'* have agreed unanimously to read "illā ittibā' al zanni" (4:157) with fatḥ, because this is in accordance with the Ḥijāzī tongue, in which they use fatḥ in this type of exception's (as opposed to Tamīm, who use dammah).

Sībawayh studied this type of exception in the section of his book entitled Hādhā Bābun Yukhtāru fihi al Naṣbu li'anna al Ākhira Laysa min Naw' al 'Awwal wa Huwa Lughatu Ahl al Hijāz (Preferring the Accusative because the Second Term Is Not in the Same Category as the First, and That Is the Dialect of the Hijāz), as opposed to Tamīm who use dammah (the nominative).⁵⁹

Thus we find "mā hadhā basharan" (12:31)⁶⁰ as opposed to Tamīm's "mā hādhā basharun." However, no one recited this passage in the latter manner, according to Sībawayh, except those who were not aware of how it was in the muṣḥaf.⁶¹ He, however, opts for the mā tamīmiyyah in general on the grounds that it corresponds with analogy.⁶²

Ibn Jinnī (392/1001) states that $m\bar{a}$ in Tamīm usage is more analogous but that the Hijāzī is more widely used. He prefers the Hijāzī because it is more widely used and because the Qur'an has been revealed in this language. 63

^{56.} Al Burhān, 1:295-86; Itgān, 1:103.

^{57.} Al Kitāb, 2:424.

^{58.} Ibid.

^{59.} Ibid., 1:363-65.

^{60.} Al Burhān, 1:286; Itgān, 1:103.

^{61.} Al Kitāb,1:28.

^{62.} Ibid.

^{63.} Al Khaṣā'iş, 1:125.

In addition, the readings of the Qur'an represent various dialects, among them Hijāzī and Tamīmī, such as "bi rabwatin" (2:265), with fath according to Tamīmī practice, this being the reading of Ibn 'Āmir and 'Āṣim, while "bi rubwatin" with dammah is attributed to Quraysh, being the reading of the rest of the ten Qurrā'. Ibn Jinnī regards the reading of 7:57, nushuran, as more fluent, because it is the language of the Hijāzī people, while the Tamīmī version is nushran.

The Hijāzī nushuran is the reading of Nāfi', Ibn Kathīr, Abū 'Amr, Abū Ja'far, and Ya'qūb; and the Tamīmī is the reading only of Ibn 'Āmir." Ibn 'Abd al Barr argues that the statement of 'Umar to Ibn Mas'ūd⁶⁷ indicates merely his own preference and does not mean that he forbade Ibn Mas'ūd's reading. He points out that because the Our'an may be read in seven ahruf, there is no objection to choosing from within the seven ahruf.68 Ibn Jinni comments that the Arabs change ha' to 'ayn and vice versa because of the similarity in their place of articulation. He concludes that 'attā for hattā is permitted, but that hattā is preferred because it is more widely used. 49 Hammūdah supports this view by referring to certain sound readings attributed to Hudhayl, which were accepted among the Qurrā', such as the readings of Hamzah and al Kisā'i in which they read 3:11 as "fa li immihi" instead of "fa li ummihi." This interpretation leads to the question of the revelation of the Our'an in seven ahruf, which has been discussed in detail in Chapter 1. Among the interpretations of the term ahruf mentioned, one is that they refer to certain dialects of the Arabs. However scholars who support this interpretation have differed in identifying the dialects involved. According to certain scholars, all seven ahruf are included in the Mudari tongue. Abū 'Ubayd attributes to certain unnamed scholars the view that these seven Mudari dialects are those of Quraysh, Kinānah, Asad, Hudhayl, Tamīm, Dabbah, and Qays.72 Ibn 'Abbas is reported by some scholars to have identified these seven as Ka'b of Quraysh (i.e., Ka'b Ibn Lu'ayy and Ka'b of Khuzā'ah [i.e., Ka'b Ibn 'Amr of Khuzā'ah]). According to Ibn 'Abbās, branches of Quraysh and Khuzā'ah were neighbors.73

^{64.} Hujjat al Qirā'āt, 146; Al Muhadhdhab fi-al Qirā'āt al 'Ashr, 1:104.

^{65.} Al Muhtasib, 1:255.

^{66.} Al Muhadhdhab fi al Qirā'āt al 'Ashr, 1:241.

^{67.} See p. 96 of this study.

^{68.} Fath al Bārī, 9:27.

^{69.} Al Muhtasib, 1:343.

^{70.} Al Qirā'āt wa al Lahājāt, 27.

^{71.} Ibn Kathīr, Fadā'il al Our'ān, 22; Fath al Bārī, 9:27.

^{72.} Al Murshid al Wājīz, 101.

^{73.} Abū 'Ubayd, Faḍā'il al Qur'ān, 308; al Ṭabarī, Tafsīr, 1:66; Al Murshid al Wājīz, 93.

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However, al Kalbī attributes to Ibn 'Abbās the view that the ahruf are seven dialects, five of them belonging to the A'jāz of Hawāzin, Abū 'Ubayd identifies four of the five as Sa'd Ibn Bakr, Jusham Ibn Bakr, Nașr Ibn Mu'āwiyah, and Thaqīf. He adds that they were called 'Ulyā Hawazin (Upper Hawazin) and were considered, along with Sufla Tamim (Lower Tamim), the most fluent of the Arabs according to 'Amr Ibn al 'Ala'. However, according to Abū 'Ubavd, Sa'd Ibn Bakr is the most fluent of all Arabs, for the saving is attributed to the Prophet, "I am the most fluent of Arabs because I am Qurayshī and brought up in Sa'd Ibn Bakr."75 Abū Shāmah attributes to certain unnamed scholars the belief that five of the seven dialects belong to Hawazin and the remaining two to all the Arabs. In support of this view, it is argued that the Prophet was brought up in Hawazin and lived with Hudhayl. According to another version, Abū 'Ubayd is reported to have identified the dialects as Ouraysh, Hudhayl, Thaqif, Hawazin, Kinanah, Tamim, and Yemen." This view apparently expands the seven ahruf to include nearly all the Arab dialects.

Abū Shāmah and Ibn al Jazarī attribute to certain unnamed scholars the view that the dialects are Sa'd, Thaqīf, Hudhayl, and Quraysh, and that the remaining two are divided among the tongues of all the Arabs. According to Abū Ḥātim al Sijistānī, the dialects are Quraysh, Hudhayl, Tamīm, al Azd, Rabī'ah, Hawāzin, and Sa'd Ibn Bakr. 9

According to al Țabarī, the language of the Qur'an represents some but not all of the dialects of the Arabs, because their tongues and languages were more than seven.⁸⁰ According to Ibn Qutaybah and Abū 'Alī al Ahwāzī, all seven aḥruf are included in the Qurayshī tongue, in which the Qur'an was exclusively revealed.⁸¹

Among those who accepted the existence of other dialects in the Qur'an, views differed concerning the most eloquent speakers of the Arabic language. Al Mubarrid states that every Arab whose language has not been changed is fluent according to his people (tribe), and that the meaning of the statement banū fulān afṣahu min banī fulān is that Arabs are more similar in their language to the language of the Qur'an and the

^{74.} Abū 'Ubayd, Faḍā'il al Qur'ān, 309.

^{75.} Ibid.; Al Muzhir, 1:210.

^{76.} Al Murshid al Wājīz, 96.

^{77.} Ibid., 99-100; Nashr, 1:24; Manāhil, 1:180.

^{78.} Al Murshid al Wājīz, 100; Nashr, 1:24.

^{79.} Al Murshid al Wājīz, 94; Itgān, 1:135.

^{80.} Al Tabari, Tafsīr, 1:46-47.

^{81.} Itgān, 1:135.

Quraysh, although the Qur'an has been revealed in all the languages of the Arabs. 82

Abū 'Amr Ibn al 'Alā' is quoted in different versions as mentioning the most eloquent of Arabs as those in Upper Hawāzin and Lower Tamīm,³³ Upper Hawāzin and Lower Qays, or Upper Hawāzin and Lower Quraysh.³⁴ According to Abū 'Ubayd, however, Sa'd Ibn Bakr is the most fluent of all Arabs because of the statement attributed to the Prophet discussed above.

Quraysh were regarded as the most eloquent of all the Arabs according to Ibn Fāris, 85 who is followed by al Fārābī, al Suyūū, 86 Ibn Khaldūn, 87 and al Rāfī'ī. 88 Ibn al Bāqillānī, as mentioned, considers Quraysh the most eloquent of the Arabs and cites the fluency and clarity of the language of Tamīm. Al Mubarrid, in his Al Kāmil and on the authority of al Aṣma'ī, considers Jarm to be the most fluent of all Arabs. 89 Other sources refer to many other tribes, such as Hudhayl and Thaqīf, as being the most eloquent. 90

The most fluent of all the Arabs after Quraysh, however, according to al Fārābī, are Qays, Tamīm, Asad, Hudhayl, and some parts of Kinānah and Tayyi'. Al Rāfi'ī asserts that Quraysh are the most eloquent of all the Arabs, followed by Sa'd ibn Bakr, Jusham ibn Bakr, Nasr ibn Mu'āwiyah and Thaqīf. Following them in fluency are Khuzā'ah, Hudhayl, Kinānah, Asad, and Dabbah. They were neighbors of Makkah and visited there frequently. Next in fluency are Qays and other tribes of central Arabia. The number seven, however, according to al Rāfi'ī is symbolic.

The time factor is an important reason for these differences in fluency, eloquence, and clarity of speech, since the tribal societies in Arabia were influenced by non-Arab clients who came to live in settled areas and who later influenced nomadic regions. The philologists are said to have refused to accept information from certain regions and tribes whose dialects were considered the most fluent of all Arabs, such as Thaqīf, the people of Ṭā'if,

^{82.} Al Fādil, 113.

^{83.} Abū 'Ubayd, Fadā'il al Qur'ān, 309; Al Fādil, 113.

^{84.} Al Fāḍil, 113.

^{85.} Al Şāḥibī, 52.

^{86.} Al Muzhir, 1:211.

^{87.} Muqaddimah, 635.

^{88.} I'jāz al Qur'ān, 65.

^{89.} Al Kāmil, 2:233.

^{90.} Al Muzhir, 1:211.

^{91.} Ibid.

^{92.} I'jāz al Qur'ān, 65.

^{93.} Ibid., 70-71.

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and the towns of Hijāz, on the grounds that their language was changed and distorted by the influence of foreign clients.⁹⁴

This view of seven dialects with all their different versions has been refuted on the grounds that the Qur'an's text includes many words belonging to other Arab dialects that have not been selected as one of the seven aḥruf. Also, if the differences between them were dialectal, Umar and Hishām would not have been reported as having differed in reading, because both men belonged to the same Qurayshī tribe. Furthermore, al Ṭabarī regarded as weak (da'īf) all traditions mentioning the seven lughāt on the basis of their isnād, since none of their narrators (such as Qatādah and al Kalbī) is regarded as accepted in any chain.

Ibn al Jazarī states that what is meant by *aḥruf* is not dialects but seven types of linguistic differences. In support of this view, Abū Bakr al Wāsiū is reported to have said that forty Arab dialects (*lughāt*) are found in the Qur'an. Al Suyūū identifies thirty-two dialects, quoting examples of them in the Qur'an. 100

Ibn al Naqīb is reported to have said in his *Tafsīr* that the Qur'an includes all Arab dialects.¹⁰¹ In support of this view, Ayyūb al Sakhtiyānī is reported to have said that the verse, "We sent no Messenger except [to each] in the language of his own people" (14:4), refers to all Arabs.¹⁰² 'Alī and Ibn 'Abbās are also reported as having said that the Qur'an has been revealed according to the dialects of all Arabs.¹⁰³ The version of Ibn 'Abbās states that the Prophet taught people in one dialect. When they had difficulty understanding, he started teaching every tribe according to its dialect.¹⁰⁴

Since the Qur'anic text includes different features of various Arab dialects, this chapter will next discuss the commonly accepted view that the Qur'an has been revealed in the common literary language, this being based on a certain dialect or dialects of the Arabs, whether specified or not.

The following pages will discuss views of modern and contemporary scholars whose arguments and analyses are based on modern methodology and linguistic evidence. However, first we will briefly consider Vollers'

^{94.} Al Muzhir, 1:212.

^{95.} Manāhil, 1:180-81.

^{96.} Ibid.; Al Itaān, 1:136.

^{97.} Al Tabari, Tafsīr, 1:66.

^{98.} Nashr, 1:24-26, and Chapter 4 of this study.

^{99.} Itqān, 1:102.

^{100.} Ibid., 89-104.

^{101.} Ibid., 168.

^{102.} Al Murshid al Wājīz, 94.

^{103.} Ibid., 96.

^{104.} Ibid., 96-96.

hypothesis that classical Arabic was based on the speech of the bedouins in Najd and Yamāmah, but was much changed by the poets, while in the rest of Arabia, a quite different language, the precursor of the modern Ḥadarī colloquial, was spoken. Vollers claims that the Qur'an was composed in that popular Arabic and subsequently rewritten in the classical style. However, Vollers' theory has been discarded as too extreme. Rabin differs from Vollers, who

rejected the official text of the Koran as a grammarian's fabrication and sought its original form in the noncanonical variant readings. This reconstructed text he believed to be representative of 'a popular language', opposed to classical Arabic above all by its lack of cases and moods ¹⁰⁷

Rabin then presents his own hypothesis: "I accept the Othmanic text as a true presentation of the language Muhammad used, but believe that his literary diction contained some elements of the spoken idiom of his milieu which happens to be a specimen of another lost language." Vollers' view was rejected by R. Geyer and Nöldeke, who rightly point out that there is no support for it in either the oldest traditions nor in the evidence of the Arabic itself. 109 In any case, i'rāb is found not only in Arabic, but is an original Semitic feature, being found in Akkadian, Ethiopian, Babylonian, Hebrew, Nabatean, and other Semitic languages. 110 In Nabatean particularly. as Nöldeke established, all cases of i'rāb—dammah, fathah, and kasrah are found. In support of this, the Harran inscription contains an accusative form; e.g., dhā al martūl. 112 In the Qur'anic text, there are many examples whose meanings are unclear without taking i'rāb into account, such as "Innamā yakhshā Allāha min 'ibādihi al 'ulamā'u" (35:28), "Wa idh ibtalā Ibrāhīma Rabbuhū" (2:124), "Wa idhā ḥaḍara al qismata ulū al qurbā" (4:8), and "Anna Allāha barī'un min al mushrikīna wa rasūluhū" (9:3). Moreover, the Our'an has been received by way of tawatur with i'rab in written form and recitation. 113 The teaching of the Our'an was in accordance with i'rāb when it was read in prayers and taught to the students. The

^{105.} Ancient West-Arabian, 17.

^{106.} Arberry, The Seven Odes, 240.

^{107.} Ancient West-Arabian, 4.

^{108.} Ibid.

^{109.} Shorter Encyclopaedia of Islam, 276.

Bergsträsser, Al Tatawwur al Nahwi, 75; Wolfenshon, Tārīkh al Lughāt al Sāmiyyah, 157;
 Johann Fück, Al 'Arabiyyah, 3; Enno Littman, Arabic Inscriptions (Leiden: 1914), 37.

^{111.} Nöldeke, Die Semitischen Sprachen (Leipzig: 1899), 51 f.

^{112.} Al Mufașșal fi Tārīkh al 'Arab Qabl al Islām, 8:549.

^{113.} Wafi, Figh al Lughah, 215.

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Qurrã' did not differ in the i'rāb, except in a few cases that were related to the permission to read the Qur'an according to the seven ahruf.¹¹⁴

The system of *i'rāb* in the Arab language dates back to ancient times, and what the grammarians introduced was simply a formulation of the rules governing its use with special reference to the language of the Our'an and of fluent speakers. Thus, the grammarians created Arabic grammar as a science. 115 'Ali Wafi points out that the writing of the mushaf, which is received by way of tawatur, although free from vocalization, supports the existence of i'rāb; e.g., the presence of alif in the case of the nunated accusative (e.g., rasūlan, bashīran, and shahīdan), and i'rāb with hurūf (e.g., al mu'minūn and al mu'minūn). 116 The Qur'an refers to its language as "clear Arabic language" (26:195) and states that "[it is] a Qur'an in Arabic without any crookedness [therein]" (39:28). This presupposes i'rāb to make things clear and understandable. The word i'rāb, however, in its earliest appearance in the Arabic lexicon, means "speaking clearly, speaking without incorrectness, without barbarousness, etc."117 Statements are attributed to the Prophet and certain Companions encouraging Muslims to read the Qur'an according to i'rāb.118 Al Suyūfi comments that what is meant by i'rāb in this context is no more than the knowledge of the meaning of the words. He objects to its interpretation as a grammatical term on the ground that qirā'ah (recitation) without it is not considered or accepted in any case and that there would be no reward without it. 119 In this connection, Abū Bakr is reported to have said, "Verily reading the Our'an with the manner of i'rāb is more beloved to me than just memorizing certain verses."120 This statement is, however, misunderstood by Paul Kahle. He comments that seeking i'rāb and asking people to read the Qur'an with $i'r\bar{a}b$ indicates that it used to be read without $i'r\bar{a}b$, and that the i'rāb was later introduced to the text of the Our'an. 121 The word i'rāb in the statement of Abū Bakr, if one accepts its validity, means clarity in reading the Qur'an and does not refer to grammatical terminology, because this meaning evolved after the introduction of nagt al i'rāb by Abū al Aswad al Du'alī during the reign of 'Abd al Malik Ibn Marwān. 122

^{114.} See pp. 15-16.

^{115.} Wafi, Fiqh al Lughah, 215.

^{116.} Ibid.

^{117.} Lane, An Arabic English Lexicon, book I, part 5, 1492.

^{118.} Al Ḥalātī, Risālah fi al Tajwīd, 156; Itqān, 2:3; Ibn al Anbārī, Kitāb İḍāḥ al Waqf wa al Ibtidā', 1:15-36.

^{119.} Itgān, 2:3.

^{120.} Ibn al Anbāri, İdāh, 1:20, 23.

^{121.} Die Kairoer Geniza (London: 1947), 78-84.

^{122.} Al Muḥkam, 3-7; Al Awā'il, 2:107, 130; see Chapter 3 of this book.

If, however, the Qur'an used to be read without *i'rāb*, this would have been mentioned in the oldest traditions and language sources. ¹²³ Furthermore, certain early scholars are said to have objected to *naqt al i'rāb* and *naqt al i'jām*, but only on the grounds that they were not in accordance with the orthographical practice of the *salaf*. If the inflectional endings in themselves had been an invention or innovation, these scholars would have protested vigorously, whereas no such protest is mentioned at all.

 $l'r\bar{a}b$ in its grammatical sense, as Ibn Fāris states, "distinguishes the meaning, and with the use of $i'r\bar{a}b$ we understand what the speakers meant."¹²⁴

As al Anṭākī notes, it is unlikely that a group of grammarians could impose on Arabic these fabricated characteristics and force people to accept and use them so quickly without any resistance or rejection. In addition, the idea of invention in the field of languages is not acceptable, and, while languages evolve, this is a gradual process. Thus, one can say that the language of the Qur'an is a natural tongue in its development, and its characteristics and qualities date back to centuries before Islam. 125

To return to the main discussion, the differences between dialects spoken in the main part of Arabia (Hijāz, Najd, and the Euphrates region), according to Nöldeke, "were small and the literary language is based on all of them equally." Classical Arabic, according to Lyall, is "a language of poetic convention of tribal wordstocks that had grown up with the absorbtion of the immense vocabulary of the Jāhiliyyah's qaṣīdah and its great number of synonyms." 127

However, classical Arabic, states Guidi, is a mixture of dialects spoken in Najd and adjoining regions, but not identical with any one of them. ¹²⁸

Nallino maintains that the classical Arabic was based on the colloquial language of the tribes of Ma'add, which were united because of the rise of the kingdom of Kindah, whose kings welcomed poets and rewarded them generously. According to Nallino, this colloquial tongue became the common literary language in the middle of the sixth century A.D. and dominated most of the Arabian peninsula, including Madīnah, Makkah, and Tā'if in Hijāz.¹²⁹ Fischer and Hartmann held the

^{123.} Shorter Encyclopaedia of Islam, 276.

^{124.} Al Şāhibī, 76.

^{125.} Al Wajiz fi Fiqh al Lughah, 129-32.

^{126.} Ancient West-Arabian, 17.

^{127.} Sir Charles J. Lyall, Al Mufaddaliyyāt, 1:xxv-xxvi.

^{128.} Ancient West-Arabian, 17.

^{129.} Nallino, "Kayfa Nasha'at al Lughah al 'Arabiyyah," Majallat al Hilāl 26, 1 (October 1917):41-48.

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view that classical Arabic was identical to a particular dialect but did not specify which one. 130

Brockelmann, like Wetzstein and others before him, claims that "classical Arabic was never spoken in the form in which we know it." He does not discuss its relation to the dialects. ¹³¹ Elsewhere, he describes the language of the Qur'an as based on the dialect of Quraysh. ¹³² Bergsträsser, in his Al Taṭawwur al Naḥwī li al Lughah al 'Arabiyyah, ¹³³ may be quoted in favor of what he calls Ḥijāzī dialect, because he states that the orthography of the muṣḥaf was in accordance with Ḥijāzī dialect. ¹³⁴ Wolfensohn argues that this common literary language is a mixture of many dialects and that they became a united language after the disappearance of their speakers. ¹³⁵

Blachère claims that the literary Arabic language is based on a native dialect, but he does not say which one. He objects to the Qurayshī dialect as the native dialect on which the literary language was based. Rabin offers what he calls the working hypothesis that "classical Arabic is based on one or several of the dialects of Najd, perhaps in archaic form." The language of the Qur'an, according to Beeston, "is unmistakably that of the poetic corpus of the sixth century." He, however, maintains that it was first written down in a form reflecting the pronunciation of the Western dialect of Makkah. He adds that the scholars succeeded in introducing certain features characteristic of the Eastern dialects by adding reading marks to the language.

However, most Western scholars generally agree that classical Arabic originated among the bedouins of Najd. Some believe it to have been originally the language of one tribe, others a combination of various dialects. Some also think it acquired some purely artificial characteristics.¹⁴⁰

However, Wansbrough, in his *Qur'anic Studies*,¹⁴¹ devotes a chapter to the "origin of classical Arabic" in which, unlike the others, he rejects the concept of the literary Arabic language without offering any clear alternative. He asserts that little is known about the text of the Qur'an or about

^{130.} Ancient West-Arabian, 17.

^{131.} Ibid.

^{132,} Figh al Lughāt al Sāmiyyah, 30.

^{133.} Published in Cairo: Matba'at al Sa'ādah, 1929.

^{134.} Ibid., 27.

^{135.} Tārīkh al Lughāt al Samiyyāh, 166.

^{136.} Tārīkh al Adab al 'Arab, al 'Aşr al Jāhilī, 77.

^{137.} Ancient West-Arabian, 3.

^{138.} The Arabic Language Today, 13.

^{139.} Ibid.

^{140.} C. Rabin, art. 'Arabiyya, E.I.', 1:565.

^{141.} Oxford University Press, 1977.

^{142.} Ibid., 85-118.

classical Arabic prior to the "literary stabilization of both in the third/ninth century." Nothing, he maintains, in the Qur'anic usage of the word 'arabī and its cognate form supports Fück's suggestion ('Arabiyya, Berlin 1905, 1-5) that 'arabī in the expression "clear Arabic speech" refers to the 'arabiyya that was the literary language of the bedouins.¹⁴³

Watt's final conclusion, however, is that the language of the Qur'an falls somewhere between the poetical koine and the Makkan dialect. He also notes the omission of the *hamzah* or glottal stop, which is mentioned as a peculiarity of Makkan speech and has affected the orthography of the Qur'an. Alternatively, he states that one might say that the Qur'an was written in a Makkan variant of the literary language.

This common literary language, however, according to certain contemporary Arab philologists, should not be attributed to a particular tribe, but to all Arab tribes. Because this language has accepted elements from all the tribes, it seems to be similar to all of them.¹⁴⁵

'Alī Wāfī 146 accepts the view that the Our'an is revealed in the common literary language, but disagrees with Western scholars in that he, like Tāhā Husayn and others before him, asserts that this common language is based on the Ouravshi speech. In order to reconcile these two ideas, he postulates that the Qurayshī influence spread throughout Arabia well before Islam. He agrees with Vendryes in pointing out that the formation of a standard or common language is "due either to the extension of an organized political power, to the influence of a predominant social class, or to the supremacy of a literature. Whatever may be its recognized origin, there are always political, social or economic reasons which contribute to its preservation."147 'Alī Wāfī then argues that at least the second and third of these reasons apply to Quraysh. Their dominating dialect then became the language of art, as well as of prose and poetry. It also was the language of correspondence, conferences, negotiations, and the delegations' speeches and poems. 148 'Alī Wāfī's arguments for this theory are not based on any linguistic evidence, but on what he sees as the dominant cultural and economic position enjoyed by Makkah in the Jāhiliyyah period. 'Alī Wāfī's arguments are used by most Arab scholars and researchers with certain additions or modifications. 149

^{143.} A. T. Welch, art, al Kur'an, E.I.², 5:419.

^{144.} Introduction to the Our'an, 84.

^{145.} Tammām Ḥassan, Al Lughah Bayn al Mi'yāriyyah wa al Wasfiyyah, 61-62.

^{146.} Figh al Lughah al 'Arabiyyah, 111.

^{147.} Language: A Linguistic Introduction to History, 261.

^{148,} Figh al Lughah al 'Arabiyyah, 111-12.

^{149.} Ḥammūdah, Al Qirā'āt wa al Lahajāt (Cairo: 1948); Shāhīn, Fī 'Ilm al Lughah al 'Amm (Cairo: 1980); Mahdī al Makhzūmī, Madrasat al Kūfah (Baghdad: 1955).

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Furthermore, this common literary language of pre-Islamic verse and prose is, according to Hammūdah, the language in which the Qur'an has been revealed. However, he adds that the origin of this language is the *lahjah* (dialect) of Quraysh or what is called the Hijāzī dialect.¹⁵⁰ Moreover, Amīs refers to the occasions of pilgrimage, general gatherings, and cultural conferences before Islam, which were factors in uniting the Arabic language on the basis of the Qurayshī dialect.¹⁵¹ He maintains elsewhere that the most eloquent manner of pausing in Qur'anic verses, which is dominant in the Qur'an, is that of Quraysh and Hijāz.¹⁵² However, he asserts elsewhere that the language of the Qur'an represents the common literary language of all Arabs and not only of Quraysh.¹⁵³

The Qurayshī dialect, however, is argued to have contributed many elements and features to the common literary language, to the extent that attributing it generally to Quraysh or Ḥijāz may be accurate, as most scholars believe. ¹⁵⁴ But the Qur'an contains many other elements and features that are known to have disagreed with that of the Ḥijāzī people, including Quraysh. ¹⁵⁵

Al Ghamrāwī, who accepts the common literary language, asserts that the only difference between Qurayshī and other dialects is that the influence of common literary language on the Qurayshī dialect was so great (because Quraysh were close to the markets). He distinguishes between the literary and spoken language of Quraysh and postulates that both were influenced by the common literary language (while for other tribes, this influence was mainly on the language of poems). 156

However, objections have been raised against the view that the language of the Qur'an is based on the Qurayshī dialect. These objections may be summarized as follows:

- 1. The only reason for the Qurayshī dialect to be favored is theological, rather than linguistic (i.e., the Quraysh are the tribe of the Prophet).¹⁵⁷
- 2. The *Mufassirūn* quoted other dialects and cited poets belonging to other tribes to interpret the meaning of archaic words.
- 3. The Quraysh tribe included few poets.
- 4. The philologists refer to bedouin dialects rather than to the Qurayshī

^{150.} Al Qirā'āt wa al Lahajāt, 30.

^{151.} Fi al Lahajāt al 'Arabiyyah, 32.

^{152.} Min Asrār al Lughah, 215.

^{153.} Mustaqbal al Lughah al 'Arabiyyah, 9.

^{154.} Fusūl min Figh al 'Arabiyyah, 69.

^{155.} Ibid.

^{156.} Al Nagd al Tahlīlī, 210.

^{157.} Nöldeke, Die Semitischen Sprachen.

dialect.

- 5. The Sūq 'Ukāz had only been established shortly before Islam. 158
- 6. Certain non-Qurayshī features, such as hamz, are dominant in the Our'an. 159

These points were, in turn, refuted by supporters of the view that the language of the Qur'an is based on the Qurayshī dialect. They objected on the grounds that the Qur'an contains other dialect features that were to be interpreted with reference to their origins, ¹⁶⁰ but that it was the influence of non-Arabs on the tongue of the Ḥijāzī people after the spread of Islam that led the philologists to seek the pure language in the areas which were not occupied by non-Arabs or where their numbers were very small. ¹⁶¹ As for the towns, the purity of language (faṣāḥah) vanished after the first half of the second century A.H. ¹⁶² The philologists found during their research that the Qurayshī tongue had become distorted, ¹⁶³ but they continued collecting from bedouins and accepting their dialects until the middle or end of the fourth century A.H. ¹⁶⁴ Furthermore, 'Ukāz had come into existence not shortly before Islam, as claimed, but at least a century before. ¹⁶⁵

In conclusion, the Qur'an refers to the language in which it has been revealed as "Arabic without any crookedness (therein)" (39:28) and a "clear Arabic language" (26:195).

This 'arabiyyah referred to in the Qur'an is neither Qurayshī nor another language, but the common literary language of the people of Ḥijāz, Najd, and other regions of the Arabian peninsula. Thus the Qur'an, which was revealed in this language, could be understood by all, just as when the Muhājirūn and Anṣār meeting in Madīnah communicated and understood each other by the same. The delegations came to the Prophet from various parts of Arabia, and the Prophet sent teachers with them. Apparently, they had no difficulty in communicating or in understanding the Qur'an. ¹⁶⁶

^{158.} Nallino, "Kayfa Nasha'at al Lughah al Arabiyyah," 41-48; E.I.², 1:565; C. Rabin, art 'Arabiyya.

^{159. &#}x27;Abduh al Rājiḥī, Al Lahajāt al 'Arabiyyah fi'l Qirā'āt al Qur'āniyyah (Cairo: 1968).

^{160.} Shawqi Dayf, Al 'Aşr al Jāhilī, 133-37; Nahlah, Lughat al Qur'ān fi Juz' 'Amma, 74-75.

^{161.} Ibn Khaldūn, Al Muqaddimah, 635; Shawqi Dayf, Al 'Aşr al Jāhilī, 136-37; Al Mufaşşal fi Tārīkh al Nahw al 'Arabī, 18.

^{162.} Khizānat al Adab, 1:5-6; Tārīkh Ādāb al 'Arab, 1:338.

^{163.} Al Muzhir, 1:211.

^{164.} Tārīkh Ādāb al 'Arab, 1:128, 345; Turug Tanmiyat al Alfāz, 11-12.

^{165.} Aswaq al 'Arab, 342-43; Lane, Lexicon, vi (introduction).

^{166.} Ibn Hishām, Al Sirah, 7:357-427; Ibn Sa'd, Al Tabaqāt al Kubrā, 1:258-358; Shawqi, Al 'Aşr al Jāhilī, 134; al Ghamrāwi, Al Naqd al Taḥlītī, 210-11.

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If the Qur'an had not been revealed in this common literary language of all the Arabs, it would have been difficult for these people to understand it or to be influenced by its verses.

The Qur'an's effect on all Arab dialects was so great that it eventually had an overwhelming influence on all literary endeavors. This does not mean, however, that all dialectal features of the Arabs no longer existed. In fact, the text of the Qur'an contains features of various Arabic dialects.

Although the orthography of the *masāhif* is said to be according to the Qurayshī dialect, ¹⁶⁷ the text of the Quran still allows variant readings, since permission was given to all Arabs to read the Quran in various ways according the seven *aḥruf*. Thus, in practice, one finds various dialects in sound, accepted readings or in canonical readings ($qir\bar{a}'\bar{a}t$ $mutaw\bar{a}tirah$). For example, in $l\bar{a}kinn\bar{a}$ (18:38) and $an\bar{a}$ $uhy\bar{i}$ (2:258), the final \bar{a} is pronounced long in both continued speech and pausal form according to the reading of Abū Jaf'ar and Nāfi' of Madīnah (being Tamīmī), while according to the other tribes and readings it is preserved only in its pausal form. ¹⁶⁸

Although the language of the Qur'an represents many Arab dialects, it might be argued to have been based mainly on the dialect of Quraysh and their eloquent neighbors in Hijāz and Najd, particularly Tamīm. In the variant canonical readings of the Qur'an, as discussed in this chapter, one observes the existence of various Arab dialects as regards etymology, vocabulary, grammar, and morphology but Qurashī or Hijāzī is generally more dominant.

^{167.} Bukhārī, 6:479; Ibānah, 33; Al 'Arabiyyah, 4; Al Taṭawwur al Naḥwī, 27; Al Munjid, 22; Al Muqni', 114.

^{168.} Abū Shāmah, Ibrāz al Ma'ānī, 383; al Bannā, Ithāf Fudalā' al Bashar, 193.



CHAPTER 6



THE ORIGIN OF THE QIRA'AT

The Prophet received revelations of the Qur'an in portions of ayats, taught them to his Companions, and recited them in his own prayers and while leading prayers before the Companions. In this connection, the Qur'an addresses the Prophet:

Move not your tongue concerning the [Qur'an] to make haste therewith. It is for Us to collect it and to promulgate it: but when We have promulgated it, follow its recital [as promulgated]: then it is for Us to explain it [and make it clear]. (75:16-19)

The Qur'an also characterizes its revelation as being in stages:

[It is] a Qur'an which We have divided [into parts from time to time] in order that you might recite it to men at intervals: We have revealed it by stages. (17:106)

Furthermore, the Prophet asked certain Companions to recite to him. In this connection, 'Abd Allāh Ibn Mas'ūd is reported to have been asked by the Prophet to recite for him from the Qur'an and that he recited 3:1-41.² Ubayy Ibn Ka'b is also reported to have said that the Prophet asked him to recite for him and that he recited surah 98.³

The Muslims studied and read the Qur'an from the very early Makkan era. For example, Ibn Isḥāq reported that when 'Umar visited his sister and her husband he found them with their teacher Khabbāb Ibn al Aratt reading and studying from a saḥāfah surahs 20 and 81.4 It is attributed to the Prophet

^{1.} See Chapter 2, 41, 44.

^{2.} Bukhārī, 6:87-88.

^{3.} Ibid., 456-57.

^{4.} Sīrat Ibn Iṣḥāq, 161-62.

that whenever he received Qur'anic verses, he taught them to his Companions, the men first and then the women in a special circle.⁵

Certain learned *Qurrā'* were directed by the Prophet, when he was in Makkah before the Hijrah, to teach the Qur'an to the people in Madinah. The first *Qāri'* was Muṣ'ab Ibn 'Umayr,' and he was followed by 'Abd Allāh Ibn Umm Maktūm, 'Ammār Ibn Yāsir, and Bilāl.' In Madīnah after the Hijrah, whenever individuals or delegations of newly converted Muslims came to the Prophet, he would appoint one of his learned Companions to teach them the Qur'an.8 Furthermore, the Prophet is reported to have sent *Qurrā'* to certain places and tribes, particularly after conquering Makkah. In Makkah itself, Mu'ādh Ibn Jabal was appointed to teach the people the Qur'an.9 The number of *Qurrā'* who had committed the Qur'an to memory was increasing gradually to the extent that at Bi'r Ma'ūnah alone, in 5 A.H., seventy or forty of them were killed.¹⁰

Among the Companions and their Followers who settled in different conquered cities, the number of *Qurrā'* was considerable. Ibn Sa'd, in his *Kitāb al Ṭabaqāt*, counted hundreds who settled in Kūfah, Baṣrah, Shām, and so on, and their students who transmitted from them. After the days of the Prophet, his caliphs appointed prominent *Qurrā'* to the cities; for example, Abū al Dardā' was sent to Damsacus, 'Ubādah Ibn al Ṣāmit to Ḥims, and Mu'ādh Ibn Jabal to Palestine. Abū Allāh Ibn Mas'ūd was appointed to teach the people of Kūfah, and Abū Mūsā al Ash'arī was sent to Baṣrah.

After he compiled the *maṣāḥif*, 'Uthmān, is reported to have appointed a *Qāri*' to each of the *amṣār* to which a *muṣḥaf* was sent, specifically to teach the people of the city according to it.¹⁵

Orthographical differences are reported among the *maṣāḥif* of the cities prepared by the command of 'Uthmān. Certain scholars assert that these variations were intended to accommodate all authentic readings received from the Prophet according to the revelation of the Qur'an in seven *aḥruf*. The variations that could not be allocated in a single *muṣḥaf*

^{5.} Ibid., 128.

^{6.} Ghāyat al Nihāyah, 2:299.

^{7.} Al Zinjām, Tārīkh al Qur'ān, 40.

^{8.} Tartib al Musnad, 18:9.

^{9.} Ibid.

^{10.} See Chapter 2, 25 in this book.

^{11.} Al Tabagāt al Kubrā, 7:5-493.

^{12.} Ibid., 2:356-57.

^{13.} Ibid., 6:3-14.

^{14.} Ibid., 2:345.

^{15.} Manāhil, 1:403-4; Ma' al Masāhif, 90-91; see Chapter 2, 48.

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were divided among the maṣāḥif of the cities. 16 For example, it is reported that in 2:132 we find wa awṣā written in the maṣāḥif of Madīnah and Shām, while in the rest of the maṣāḥif it is written wa waṣṣā with the omission of alif. 17 In addition, it is agreed that the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif were free from naqt both of i'rāb and i'jām, this also being in order to accommodate various dialects and readings that were permitted in reading the Qur'an according to certain authorities, until the time came to use the naqts of i'rāb and i'jām. 18 Ibn Taymiyyah, followed by Ibn al Jazaā, asserts that the maṣāḥif in the time of the Companions were freed from naqt for the following reasons:

- The Companions depended on their memories rather than on the maṣāḥif, bearing in mind that the Qur'an is transmitted with tawātur.
 In addition, the Qur'an was revealed in portions to facilitate its memorization. Thus they did not need to depend on a book as the People of the Book did.
- 2. Being Arabs, they did not need naqt because they did not commit lahn.
- 3. They wished to preserve the possibility of different readings such as ya'malūna and ta'malūna.

Naqt was introduced during the lifetime of the Followers, when some of them started using naqt in their maṣāḥif with different colors because of the appearance of laḥn at that time.¹⁹

As regards *naqt al i'jām*, it has been argued that it has always been found with the alphabetical letters, because it was difficult to distinguish between them without using it.²⁰

Schools of reading in all the cities were established according to the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif. Any reading which did not correspond with them was abandoned, and the personal codices were destroyed by the command of 'Uthmān.²¹ The maṣāḥif and readings of the amṣār became famous and were adopted throughout the Muslim world. Hence, all canonical readings are attributed to the Qurrā' of the amṣār, among whom are the following:

 In Madinah: Mu'ādh al Qārī, Sa'id Ibn al Musayyib, 'Urwah Ibn al Zubayr, 'Umar Ibn 'Abd al 'Azīz, 'Aṭā' Ibn Yasār, Sālim Ibn 'Abd Allāh, Sulaymān Ibn Yasār, Muslim Ibn Jundub, 'Abd al Rahmān Ibn

^{16.} Al Mugni, 123-24; Nashr, 1:33.

^{17.} Al Mugni, 109.

^{18.} Al Muhkam, 2.; also see Chapter 3, 106-09.

^{19.} Fatāwā, 12:100-1; Nashr, 1:7-8; Al Ibānah, 68.

^{20.} Subh al A'shā, 3:151; also see Chapter 3, 107.

^{21.} Bukhari, 6:479.

- Hurmuz, Ibn Shihāb al Zuhrī, and Zayd Ibn Aslam.
- 2. In Makkah: 'Ubayd Ibn 'Umayr, 'Aţā', Ṭāwūs, Mujāhid, 'Ikrimah, and Ibn Abī Mulaykah.
- 3. In Kūfah: 'Alqamah, al Aswad, Masrūq, 'Ubaydah, 'Amr Ibn Shuraḥbil, al Ḥārith Ibn Qays, al Rabī' Ibn Khaytham, 'Amr Ibn Maymūn, Abū 'Abd al Raḥmān al Sulamī, Zarr Ibn Ḥubaysh, 'Ubayd Ibn Faḍilah, Abū Zar'ah Ibn 'Amr Ibn Jarīr, Sa'id Ibn Jubayr, Ibrāhīm al Nakha'i, and Sha'bī.
- In Başrah: 'Āmir Ibn 'Abd Qays, Abū al 'Alīyah, Abū Rajā', Naşr Ibn 'Āşim, Yaḥyā Ibn Ya'mur, Mu'ādh, Jābir Ibn Zayd, al Ḥasan, Ibn Sīrīn, and Oatādah.
- 5. In Shām: al Mughrīah Ibn Abī Shihāb al Makhzūmī (a pupil of 'Uthmān) and Khulayd Ibn Sa'd (a pupil of Abū al Dardā').²²

The generation that followed these $Qurr\bar{a}'$ was more specialized, and some scholars taught only $qir\bar{a}'\bar{a}t$. The people of their cities and students from other places migrated to learn from them. The readings thus were attributed to them because they had taught $qir\bar{a}'\bar{a}t$ for a long time, because of their $ikhtiy\bar{a}r^{23}$ in $qir\bar{a}'ah$ and because people of their cities agreed on their $qir\bar{a}'\bar{a}t$. These scholars include the following:

- In Madinah: Abū Ja'far Yazīd Ibn al Qa'qā', Shaybah Ibn Naṣāḥ, and Nāfi' Ibn Abī Nu'aym.
- 2. In Makkah: 'Abd Allāh Ibn Kathīr, Ḥumayd Ibn Qays al A'raj, and Muhammad Ibn Ḥusayn.
- 3. In Kūfah: Yaḥyā Ibn Waththāb, 'Āṣim Ibn Abī al Najūd, Sulaymān Ibn al A'mash, Ḥamzah, and al Kisā'ī.
- In Başrah: 'Abd Allāh Ibn Abī Isḥāq, 'Iṣā Ibn Abī 'Umar, Abū 'Amr Ibn al 'Alā', 'Āṣim al Juḥdarī, and Ya'qūb al Ḥaḍramī.
- 5. In Shām: 'Abd Allāh Ibn 'Āmir, 'Atiyyah Ibn Qays al Kilābī, Ismā'īl Ibn 'Abd Allāh al Muhājir, Yaḥyā Ibn al Ḥārith al Dhimārī, and Shurayḥ Ibn Yazīd al Ḥaḍramī.²4

No differences had been reported in readings of the Companions in the Makkan era. The first reports of this phenomenon were in Madinah, after the Hijrah and during the lifetime of the Prophet. In this connection, certain Companions were reported to have differed in reading certain aḥruf of the Qur'an and to have sought the Prophet's arbitration. Each of them sup-

²² Nachr 1-9

^{23.} For an explanation of this term, see Chapter 7.

^{24.} Nashr, 1:8-9.

ported his reading by stating that he had been taught it by the Prophet himself. For example, 'Umar and Hishām were reported to have differed before the Prophet and then to have referred each man's reading to the Prophet, who asserted that the Qur'an had been revealed in both ways.²⁵ These differences in readings continued even after the compilation of 'Uthmān, although Muslims were now ordered to read and teach the Qur'an according to the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif and the teaching of authorized Qurrā'. Thus, all readings that did not correspond with the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif were rejected and regarded as shādhdh.²⁶ Ibn Manṣūr, in his Lisān al 'Arab, adopts this view, quoting in support al Azharī, Ibn Mujāhid, and Ibn al Anbārī.²⁷

Al Zajjāj is quoted as having said that it is not permissible to read any reading that does not correspond with the orthography of the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif on the grounds that it is sunnah to follow them and read according to them. Ibn al Jazarī reports on the authority of 'Umar and Zayd Ibn Thābit among the Companions, and of their Followers Ibn al Mukandir, 'Urwah Ibn al Zubayr, 'Umar Ibn 'Abd al 'Azīz, and 'Āmir al Sha'bī, that qirā'ah is sunnah and that it was taught by the salaf to their descendants, and thus any reading should be according to it. 29

This statement, according to al Bayhaqī and Ismā'īl al Qāḍī, is to be interpreted to the effect that we should follow any reading of the salaf that is consistent with the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif and that disagreeing with the orthography of the maṣāḥif is forbidden.³⁰

The Development of the Conditions for Accepted Readings

The Companions and their Followers read the Qur'an as they had been taught by the Prophet and by those whom he authorized to teach others. The only condition for the authenticity and acceptability of a *qirā'ah* was that it should be read in accordance with *riwāyah*, since whenever the Companions and the Followers differed in reading they referred it back to the *riwāyah*, stating that they had been taught it by the Prophet.³¹ The Followers also referred their readings to prominent *Qurrā'* of the Companions, such as Ubayy Ibn Ka'b, 'Abd Allāh Ibn Mas'ūd, and Zayd

^{25.} Bukhārī, 6:482-83.

^{26.} Munjid, 16-17; Nashr, 1:14; Lata'if, 1:64; Itqān, 1:213-14.

^{27.} Lisān al 'Arab, 10:386.

^{28.} Ibrāz al Ma'ānī, 397.

^{29.} Nashr, 1:17.

^{30.} Al Ibānah, 69-73; Itqān, 1:211.

^{31.} Bukhārī, 6:482.

Ibn Thābit.³² Accordingly, the scholars agreed unanimously that transmitting of the *qirā'ah* must be learnt directly from the *Qāri'*, who was taught it according to an *isnād* traced back to the Prophet (on the grounds that this had been the practice with the Qur'an, as the Prophet had learned it from Jibrīl and taught it to his Companions accordingly).³³ After the compilation of 'Uthmān, all the *Qurrā'* were asked to read only according to the 'Uthmānic *maṣāḥif*. For this reason, the personal codices were collected and destroyed.³⁴ Eventually, the 'Uthmānic *maṣāḥif* dominated all the cities (*amṣār*), but with some slight resistance, for instance, as in the case of Ibn Mas'ūd³⁵ and Ibn Shunbūdh.³⁶

Al Qastallārū maintains that some people of innovation (bid'ah) started reading the Qur'an from the maṣāḥif without depending on riwāyah or transmission of isnād in order to support their theological views, such as the reading attributed to certain Mu'tazilites, "wa kallama Allāha Mūsā taklīman" while the authentic reading is, "wa kallama Allāhu Mūsā taklīman" (4:164). Another example of such an unauthentic reading was attributed to certain Shi'ahs, "wa mā kuntu muttakhidha al muḍillayn 'aḍudan," to interpret it as referring to Abū Bakr and 'Umar (the authentic reading is "al muḍillīn" (18:51), with a plural form instead of dual).

Al Qaṣṭallārū argues that, in this way, the scholars chose certain Qurrā' from each city to which the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif were sent on the basis of authenticity, integrity, knowledge, long experience in teaching qirā'āt, correspondence of their readings with the orthography of 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif, and the consensus of the people of their cities on accepting them.³⁷ Al Ṭabarī is quoted, in his Kitāb al Qirā'āt, as having authenticated all readings, provided that they corresponded to the orthography of 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif and were transmitted from the Prophet with authentic isnād.³⁸ Ibn Mujāhid introduces more conditions, considering in his evaluation of qirā'ah the Qāri' rather than the qirā'ah. According to his criteria the acceptability of a qirā'ah requires the following conditions:

- 1. The Qāri' should be perfect in his memorization of the Qur'an.
- He should have knowledge of different ways of i'rāb, qirā'āt, and lughāt.
- 3. He must rely on riwāyah (narration) and isnād.

^{32.} Al Ja'buri, Kanz al Ma'ānī, fol. 15.

^{33.} Bukhārī, 6:481-83.

^{34.} Ibid., 482-83, 485-86.

^{35.} See p. 31 of this book.

^{36.} See p. 124 below.

^{37.} Lață'if al Ishărāt, 1:66.

^{38.} Al Ibānah, 53.

4. The people of his city must reach consensus on his qirā'ah.

Ibn Mujāhid (324/935) asserts that the seven Qurrā' of Hijāz, Iraq, and Shām, whose readings he collected in his Kitāb al Sab'ah, were the descendants of the Tābi'ūn and that their qirā'āt were accepted unanimously in their own and neighboring cities.³⁹ In connection with the conditions for accepted readings, a new development took place when Makkī Ibn Abī Tālib studied and classified them in his Al Ibānah, considering in his evaluation the qirā'ah rather than the Qurrā'. According to him, any qirā'ah is acceptable if it agrees with the following three conditions:

- 1. Authentic transmission from the Prophet,
- 2. Linguistic soundness, and
- 3. Orthographic agreement with one of the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif.40

Ibn al 'Arabī (543/1148), in his Al 'Awāṣim min al Qawāṣim,⁴¹ attributes these three conditions to certain unnamed scholars and approves them.⁴² Ibn al Jazarī adopts Makkī's conditions with slight modifications as follows:

- 1. Soundness of the isnād.
- 2. Consistency with the Arabic language in any of the forms of fluency, even if of lesser eloquence, and
- 3. Agreement with the orthography of one of the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif, either directly (such as the reading malik [1:3]), or indirectly (i.e., in a way that is consistent with the orthography as in the reading mālik).⁴³

Ibn al Jazarī elsewhere opted for the tawātur (successiveness of isnād) of qirā'ah, but changed this to soundness on the grounds that if there is tawātur, then there is no need to seek other conditions.

The soundness of *isnād* here means that it should consist of more than āḥād (isolated reports) and that, although it may not be *mutawātir*, it should at least be *mashhūr*. This view is supported by Makkī, al Baghawī, al Sakhāwī, Abū Shāmah, and Ibn al Jazarī. According to them, a reading is acceptable when it comes through a sound, *mashhūr isnād* that is supported by its fluency in Arabic and its agreement with the orthography of

^{39.} Kitāb al Sab'ah, 87.

^{40.} Al Ibānah, 51, 90-91.

^{41.} Edited by Talibi, 2 vols.

^{42.} Ibid., 2:485.

^{43.} Nashr, 1:9.

^{44.} Munjid, 15.

^{45.} Nashr. 1:13.

^{46.} Al Ibānah, 51; Al Murshid al Wajīz, 145, 172; Nashr, 1:13.

one of the 'Uthmānic masāhif. If one of these three conditions is not met, the reading should not be accepted but should be regarded as shādhdh.⁴⁷ In support of his views on the three conditions for accepted readings, Ibn al Jazarī quotes earlier scholars (Makkī, al Dārū, al Mahdawī, Abū Shāmah, and al Kawāshī) and then adds that this is the view of all the salaf without exception.⁴⁸ Ibn al 'Arabī, Ibn Ḥajar al 'Asqalānī, al Qastallānī, and al Suyūtī agree, quoting many other named and unnamed scholars as having supported this view.⁴⁹

However, according to al Ja'burī, the only condition for an accepted reading is the authenticity of its *isnād*, which necessarily includes the other requirements of fluency and orthography. While according to al Hudhalī, in his Al Kāmil, all readings agreeing with the maṣāḥif are accepted provided that they do not contradict the *ijmā*. 51

According to al Zurqānī, certain scholars did not make tawātur an obligatory condition of the accepted readings because the Qur'an is mutawātir, for the acceptability of a qirā'ah the three conditions might be enough to give knowledge that is the same as mutawātir.⁵²

Al Nuwayrī (897/1492) objects to the view discussed above—that tawātur should not be obligatory—because, according to him, most scholars, like al Ghazzālī, Ibn al Ḥājib, Ibn 'Abd al Barr, Ibn 'Aṭiyyah, al Nawawī, and al Zarkashī, demand tawātur as a condition for the acceptability of a reading. In addition, he states that the view that does not impose the condition of tawātur is an innovation and contradicts the consensus of jurisprudents, Muḥaddithūn, and others. Moreover, he asserts that Makkī was the first one to differ and that he was followed by certain late scholars. Al Bannā' al Dimyālī, following the views of al Nuwayrī, asserts that Makkī was the first one who did not impose the condition of tawātur for accepted readings. 4

Al Ṣafāqisī (1118/1706) argues that, according to *Uṣūlīs*, *Fuqahā'*, and the *Qurrā'*, *tawātur* is essential for the authenticity of a *qirā'ah*. Accordingly, a *qirā'ah* cannot be authentic with only a sound chain, even if it agrees with the orthography of the *maṣāḥif* and fluency in Arabic, as was maintained by Makkī and then Ibn al Jazarī. He adds that this *madhhab* of Makkī and Ibn al Jazarī is not reliable, because it does not differentiate

^{47.} *Ibid*.

^{48.} Nashr, 1:9, 44; Itaān, 1:210.

^{49.} Ibn al 'Arabī, Al 'Awāṣim, 2:485; Fatḥ al Bārī, 9:32; Laṭā'if al Ishārāt, 1:67; Itqān, 1:225.

^{50.} Nashr, 1:13; Itaān, 1:211.

^{51.} Nashr. 1:36.

^{52.} Manāhil al 'Irfān, 1:427.

^{53.} Al Qawl al Jādhdh li man Qarā'a bi al Shādhdh and Latā'if al Ishārāt, 1:70.

^{54.} Itḥāf Fuḍalā' al Bashar, 6.

^{55.} Ghayth al Naf*, 6.

between what is Qur'an and what is not. Furthermore, according to al Ṣafāqisī, differing versions given by the $Qurr\bar{a}'$ do not affect the successiveness of a $qir\bar{a}'ah$, because it can be successive according to one group of $Qurr\bar{a}'$ even if it is not according to all of them. He states, therefore, that $sh\bar{a}dhdh$ is what is not successive.⁵⁶

Most jurisprudents do not accept a qirā'ah except with tawātur of its transmission. Only the Hanafis accept the shurah of an isnād.⁵⁷

Ibn Miqsam (332/943) is reported to have read according to the two conditions of agreement with the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif and fluency in the Arabic language. His reading, because it omitted the first condition of authenticity of isnād, was abandoned and rejected by the scholars. He was questioned by leading scholars of his time and was forbidden to continue, after which he is reported to have repented and returned to the consensus of the scholars.⁵⁸

Ibn al Bāqillānī regards those readings that conflict with the 'Uthmānic maṣāhif as having nonsuccessive chains $(akhbār \bar{a}h\bar{a}d)$ and maintains that it is not permissible to read the Qur'an except in successive transmission. He adds that all the Muslims have agreed among that it is not permissible to write or to read the Qur'an according to these anomalous $sh\bar{a}dhdh$ readings. ⁵⁹

However, all scholars, including Ibn al Jazarī, regard any reading that omits the first condition of transmission as false and fabricated, and maintain that whoever intentionally reads in this way is to be considered an unbeliever $(k\bar{a}fir)$.⁶⁰

The orthographical differences among the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif are known from various works and books composed on the subject by early scholars who had studied the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif. In this respect, reference may be made to Abū 'Ubayd's Faḍā'il al Qur'ān,61 Ibn Mujāhid's Kitāb al Sab'ah,62 al Dānī's al Muqni' fi Rasm Masāhif al Amṣār⁶³ and al Muḥkam fi Naqt al Maṣāḥif,64 and al Mahdawī's Hijā' Maṣāḥif al Amṣār.65 In the anonymous Muqaddimat Kitāb al Mabānī fi Nazm al Ma'ānī,66 the fifth

^{56.} Ibid., 7.

^{57.} Al Zafzāf, Al Ta'rīf bi al Qur'ān wa al Ḥadīth, 54-55.

^{58.} Nukat al Intişār, 60; Munjid, 52; Nashr, 1:17; Ghāyat al Nihāyah, 2:124-25.

^{59.} Nukat al Intisar, 100-2.

^{60.} Munjid, 17.

^{61.} Edited by Jawhari (Makkah: 1398/1973).

^{62.} Edited by Shawqi Dayf (Cairo: 1972).

^{63.} Edited by Otto Pretzl (Istanbul: 1932).

^{64.} Edited by 'Izzat (Damascus: 1972).

Edited by M. Ramadān in Majallat Ma'had al Makhṭūṭāt al 'Arabiyyah 19, part I, (1973):75-141.

^{66.} Anon., published with the *Muqaddimah* of Ibn 'Aṭiyyah in *Muqaddimatān*, edited by Jeffery (Cairo: 1954).

chapter is devoted to the question of *ikhtilāf al maṣāḥif*.⁶⁷ Finally, the older books of *tafsīr* discuss these orthographical differences throughout the Qur'an (for example, al Ṭabarī's *Jāmi' al Bayān 'an Ta'wīl āy al Qur'ān*,⁶⁸ al Zamakhsharī's *Tafsīr al Kashshāf*,⁶⁹ and al Qurṭubī's *Al Jāmi' li Aḥkām al Qur'ān*).⁷⁰

It is agreed upon unanimously that any *qirā'ah* must conform with the orthography of one of the 'Uthmanic masahif." Thus, Malik Ibn Anas is reported to have said that anyone who reads according to personal codices not corresponding with the 'Uthmānic masāhif should not lead prayer.⁷² According to Ibn al Jazari, the 'Uthmānic masāhif were written down according to the final revealed version, and the people of every city read according to their maṣāḥif, having been taught by Companions who themselves read according to the teachings of the Prophet. The Followers continued accordingly, using the same method as the Companions in teaching their students. ⁷³ Ibn Shunbūdh, however, is reported to have read in ways that differed from the 'Uthmanic masahif. These differences were the same as those found in certain personal codices, such as that of Ibn Mas'ūd. 74 These readings of Ibn Shunbūdh were objected to by the scholars of his time, who met in Baghdad in 323 A.H. Under the chairmanship of Ibn Mujāhid and with the support of Ibn Muglah, the 'Abbāsid wazīr sentenced him to be beaten and forbade him to continue.75 Since no one is reported to have opposed this condition, agreement with the orthography of the 'Uthmanic masahif was insisted on, to the exclusion of the personal codices of some Companions and their Followers, which were reported to have differed in certain ahruf from the 'Uthmanic masahif." Thus, every reading that did not correspond to the orthography of the 'Uthmanic masāhif was rejected and regarded as shādhdh, even if its isnād was authentic and its language was sound.77

The final condition, of being consistent with fluent Arabic, is apparent because the Qur'an has been revealed "in the clear Arabic language" (26:195).

^{67.} Muqaddimatan, 117-33.

Published in 18 vols. (Cairo 1388/1968); edited by Shākir (incomplete) in 16 vols. (Cairo: 1347-89/1955-69).

^{69.} Published in 4 vols. (Beirut, 1366/1947).

^{70.} Published in 20 vols, in 10 (Cairo: 1966).

^{71.} Al Nawawi, Al Tibyān fi Ädāb Hamalat al Qur'ān, 98-99.

^{72.} Munjid, 17.

^{73.} Nashr, 1:7-8.

^{74.} Al Fihrist, 34-35; Al Murshid al Wajīz, 190.

^{75.} Al Fihrist, 34; Al Tibyān, 99; Al Murshid al Wajīz, 188-89; Munjid, 17.

^{76.} For more information, see Chapter 4.

^{77.} Nashr, 1:16-17.

As regards the degree of fluency in Arabic, the scholars disagreed. Some scholars objected to certain readings on the grounds that they were not in accordance with the most fluent practice. In conclusion, as Ibn al Jazarī says, if a qirā'ah is transmitted by an authentic isnād and corresponds with the orthography of one of the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif, then it is acceptable if its language is acceptable, whether or not another reading may be more fluent.

The Kinds of Readings

The readings that met the conditions for accepted readings as discussed above differed according to opinion. According to Makkī Ibn Abī al Qaysī, the readings are classified into the following categories:

- 1. The accepted readings that agree with the three conditions.
- 2. The nonaccepted readings that (a) disagree with the orthography of 'Uthmānic masāhif (such readings are refused, he says, for two reasons: because they are āḥād [isolated reports], which is not acceptable in the Qur'an, and because they contradict the consensus); (b) do not have authentic transmissions; and (c) though their transmissions are sound (but not mutawātir) and correspond with the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif, do not conform with the Arabic language.⁸⁰

For the sake of brevity, Makkī does not give examples.

However, Ibn al Jazarī, after quoting Makkī, provides the following examples:

- 1. For the first kind: Two ways of reading malik and mālik in 1:4.
- 2. For the second kind: (a) the reading attributed to Ibn Mas'ūd, "wa al dhakara wa al unthā," which is in the muṣḥaf with addition of "mā khalaqa" as "wa mā khalaqa al dhakara wa al unthā" (92:3); (b) the reading attributed to Ibn al Sumayfi' and Abū al Simāl, "nunaḥḥāka bi badanika li takūna li man khalafaka āyah," while the authentic reading is "nunajjika bi badnika li takūna li man khalfaka āyah"; and (c) the reading attributed to Zayd and Abū Ḥātim on the authority of Ya'qūb, "adriya aqarībun," which should be read "adrī aqarībun" without fatḥah. This last kind, however, is rare or non-existent, according to Ibn al Jazarī, and he quotes this here only to give an example.

^{78.} This will be treated in Chapter 7.

^{79.} Nashr, 1:15.

^{80.} Al Ibānah, 51-52.

^{81.} Nashr, 1:14-16.

Ibn al Jazarī divides the authentic readings into the following categories:

- 1. Authentic readings that are consistent with all three conditions required for the accepted reading.
- 2. Nonauthentic readings that do not meet one of the conditions.82

He elsewhere divides them into three categories. The first is the famous (mashhūr) that are accepted by all people, such as the readings of the accepted narrators and certain reliable books of qirā'āt. An example of the ways in which mashhūr readings vary is in their treatment of madd (prolongation). According to Ibn al Jazarī, the variations in madd date back to the seven aḥruf revealed to the Prophet, as do all the variations in accepted readings, which all have the status of successive readings (qirā'āt mutawātirah).⁸³ He interprets mutawātir as that which is transmitted by a group of people (without a fixed number of narrators), narrating on the authority of another group to the end of the chain. He adds that mutawātir, thus defined, gives knowledge.⁸⁴

The second category is that which is not accepted by the people and is not famous (*mashhūr*). The third category is that which has a sound chain and is consistent with Arabic but does not correspond with the 'Uthmānic *maṣāḥif*. This category is called *shādhdh*, because it differs from the orthography of the 'Uthmānic *maṣāḥif*. This category is called *shādhdh*, because it differs from the orthography of the 'Uthmānic *maṣāḥif*. This category is called *shādhdh*, because it differs from the orthography of the 'Uthmānic *maṣāḥif*. This category is called *shādhdh*, because it differs from the orthography of the 'Uthmānic *maṣāḥif*. This category is called *shādhdh*, because it differs from the orthography of the 'Uthmānic *maṣāḥif*. This category is called *shādhdh*, because it differs from the orthography of the 'Uthmānic *maṣāḥif*. This category is called *shādhdh*, because it differs from the orthography of the 'Uthmānic *maṣāḥif*. This category is called *shādhdh*, because it differs from the orthography of the 'Uthmānic *maṣāḥif*. This category is called *shādhdh*, because it differs from the orthography of the 'Uthmānic *maṣāḥif*. This category is called *shādhdh*, because it differs from the orthography of the 'Uthmānic *maṣāḥif*. This category is called *shādhdh*, because it differs from the orthography of the 'Uthmānic *maṣāḥif*. This category is called *shādhdh*, because it differs from the orthography of the 'Uthmānic *maṣāḥif*. This category is called *shādhdh*, because it differs from the orthography of the 'Uthmānic *maṣāḥif*. This category is called *shādhdh*, because it differs from the orthography of the 'Uthmānic and 'Ut

Al 'Asgalānī divides the readings into three categories:

- 1. The readings that correspond with the orthography of the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif, but are transmitted with strange isnāds. He regards these as similar to the above.
- 2. The readings that differ from or do not correspond with the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif. He says that this kind is not regarded as Qur'an.
- 3. The readings that correspond with the orthography of the 'Uthmānic maṣāhif and are transmitted in mashhūr isnāds and accepted by the scholars generation after generation. This kind of reading is, according to him, acceptable. He cites the readings of Ya'qūb and Abū Jaf'ar as examples.⁸⁷

Al Qastallānī classifies the readings into the following categories:

^{82.} Ibid., 1:15.

^{83.} Munjid, 16-17.

^{84.} Ibid., 15.

^{85.} Ibid., 16-17.

^{86.} Ibid.

^{87.} Fath al Bārī, 9:32.

- 1. The readings that are agreed to be successive readings.
- 2. The readings about whose successiveness opinions differ.
- 3. The readings that are agreed to be anomalous (shādhdh).88

According to Jalāl al Dīn al Bulqīnī (824/1421), the readings are divided into three categories:

- 1. Mutawātir, which are the seven prominent readings.
- 2. $\bar{A}h\bar{a}d$, which are the readings of the three $Qurr\bar{a}'$ completing the ten. In addition, the readings attributed to the Companions are regarded as the same as $\bar{a}h\bar{a}d$.
- 3. Shādhdh, being the readings of the Followers, such as al A'mash, Yaḥyā Ibn Waththāb, Ibn Jubayr, and the like.89

Al Suyūti, in agreement with Ibn al Jazari, objects to this view of al Bulqini on the grounds that acceptability of a *qirā'ah* should be subject only to the three conditions for an accepted reading.⁹⁰

In conclusion, al Suyūṭū classifies the kinds of acceptable readings in greater detail and defines each kind as follows:

- 1. Mutawātir, which is narrated by a group on the authority of another to the end of chain, and for whom it would be impossible to agree on something false. The example of this kind is what all narrators on the authority of the seven readers agree upon transmitting for them. The greater part of all readings is in this category.
- 2. Mashhūr, which is narrated with a sound chain, but is not mutawātir, with the condition that it should correspond to one of the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif and be consistent with the Arabic language. An example of this is where the readings of the seven Qurrā' vary. Al Suyūū asserts that only these kinds are permissible in reading the Qur'an and that they should be accepted without any doubt.
- 3. Āḥād, which are narrated with a sound isnād but are not consistent with the Arabic language or the orthography of the maṣāḥif. Readings of this kind are āḥad even if their isnād is mashhūr. This kind is not accepted and it is not permissible to read the Qur'an according to it. An example of this is found in al Ḥākim's Mustadrak, where he reports on the authority of the Prophet the reading of rafārif, which is found in the muṣḥaf as rafraf; and the reading qurrāt, which in the muṣḥaf is qurrat (32:17).

^{88.} Latā'if, 1:170.

^{89.} Itgān, 1:210.

^{90.} Ibid.

- 4. Shādhdh, that which has no sound chain; for example, the reading of malaka and yu'badu, which, according to accepted readings are maliki and na'budu (1:4-5).
- 5. Mawdū', that which has no origin or is fabricated, such as the readings compiled by al Khuzā'i, which were attributed to Abū Ḥarūfah; for example, yaksha Allāhu min 'ibādihī al 'ulamā'a, where the authentic reading is yakhshā Allāha min 'ibādihī al 'ulamā'u (35:28).
- 6. Mudraj, which is similar to al hadīth al mudraj (what is added to the text of the Qur'an as tafsīr); for example, the reading attributed to Sa'd Ibn Abī Waqqās, with the addition of min umm after wa lahū akhun aw ukhtun (4:12) and the reading attributed to Ibn 'Abbās with the addition of fī mawāsim al ḥajj to laysa 'alaykum junāḥun an tabtaghū faḍlan min Rabbikum (2:197).

The Successive and Anomalous Readings

The scholars agree on the successiveness of the seven distinguished readings of the amsār, which were compiled by Ibn Muiāhid in his Kitāb al Sab'ah. Thus, the readings were accepted and canonized by the consensus of the scholars with their fourteen versions.92 Many books were composed by prominent philologists in support of Al Sab'ah in their phonetical aspects and linguistic features.⁹³ Ibn Mujāhid regards those readings that are not found in his Al Sab'ah as shādhdh. His view was adopted by a group of scholars. 4 although others, while they agree with Ibn Mujāhid on the successiveness of his Al Sab'ah, add the three readings of Abū Ja'far, Ya'qūb. and Khalaf. Thus, according to this view, the successive readings are ten.95 In this connection, many books were composed on the readings of eight, nine, or ten Qurrā', adding one or more to Ibn Mujāhid's list. 6 Ibn al Jazarī strongly supports this view and states that the ten readings have been accepted by the salaf and their descendants, because no objections have been reported from them. Thus, according to Ibn al Jazari, the ten readings were accepted by the people unanimously. He studies the chains (asānīd) of the three additional readings to prove that they have the same status as the seven successive readings. In support of his view, he quotes Ibn Taymiyyah and Ibn Hayyan to the effect that the seven readings differ from

^{91.} Ibid., 1:215-16.

^{92.} Lata'if al Ishārāt, 1:170; Al Baḥr, 2:324.

^{93.} Abū 'Ah al Fārish, Al Hujjah, edited by al Najdt et al., 1st ed. (Cairo: 1966); Ibn Khālawayh, Al Hujjah, edited by Mukarram, 2nd ed. (Beirut: 1977).

^{94.} Ibn Khaldūn, Al Muqaddimah, 479.

^{95.} Nashr, 1:38-43; Munjid, 15-16.

^{96.} Nashr, 1:43, 58-59.

the seven *aḥruf* and were introduced by Ibn Mujāhid in the fourth century. Prior to that time, the ten readings were known in the *amṣār* and accepted by the people. In addition, according to Ibn Taymiyyah and Ibn Ḥayyān, the ten readings are successive, but if certain people do not know them all, they should not reject what they do not know. Moreover, Ibn al Jazarī lists the names of some prominent *Qurrā'* from the time of Ibn Mujāhid in the fourth century until his own time in the ninth century. In conclusion, he asserts that the ten readings are equally successive without exception.

Finally, Ibn al Jazarī devotes the fifth chapter of his *Munjid al Muqri'in* to quotations from scholars supporting his view, referring to al Baghawī, Ibn Taymiyyah, and al Ja'burī.¹⁰⁰

According to Ibn al Hājib, the seven readings are successive except in some styles of pronunciation, like *madd* and *imālah*. ¹⁰¹ Ibn Khaldūn opts for this view, approving the successiveness of only the seven readings. ¹⁰² The scholars rejected this view on grounds that the seven readings were transmitted from the *salaf* with all their *asānīd*, orthography, and linguistic aspects, including phonetics and ways of pronunciation. In regard to *madd*, for example, the *Qurrā'* agreed unanimously on the existence of prolongation and differed only concerning the degree of *madd*. ¹⁰³

Abu Shāmah regards the seven readings as successive when they agree with each other. Thus, when they differ they are not successive. However, Ibn al Jazarī objects to this view as contradicting the view of the majority. In support of this view, he states that each of the seven readings was transmitted in a successive chain and that what Ibn Mujāhid has done is only to select two *Ruwāt* from among many for each reading. 105

Furthermore, according to Ibn al Jazarī the ten readings are all successive in agreeing or disagreeing with each other and concerning all their aspects.¹⁰⁶

Many books have been written in support of the ten readings. The first author known as having composed a book on them was al Khuzā'i (d. 408/1017), who wrote Al Muntahā fi al Qirā'āt al 'Ashr.107 He was followed by Abū 'Alī al Mālikī (d. 438/1046), who wrote Kitāb al Rawdah fi

^{97.} Ibid., 28-29; c.f. Fatāwā, 13: 390-94.

^{98.} Munjid, 29-45.

^{99.} Ibid., 45-46.

^{100.} Ibid., 46-49.

^{101.} Ibid., 57.

^{102.} Muqaddimah, 479.

^{103.} Munjid, 57-62; Latā'if al Ishārāt, 1:78-79.

^{104.} Al Murshid al Wajiz, 177; Munjid, 63.

^{105.} Munjid, 62-67.

^{106.} Ibid., 54.

^{107.} Nashr, 1:93; Lată'if al Ishārāt, 1:86.

al Qirā'āt al Ihdā 'Asharah (the ten readings and the reading of al A'mash). 108 Then came Abū Nasr al Baghdādī (d. 442/1050), Al Mufid fi al Qirā'āt al 'Ashr; 109 Ibn Shītā (d. 443/1051), Al Tidhkār fi al Qirā'āt al 'Ashr; 110 Ibn Fāris (d. 450/1058), Al Jāmi' fi al Oirā'āt al 'Ashr; 111 Abū al Hasan al Fārisī (d. 461/1068), Kitāb al Jāmi' fi al Oirā'āt al 'Ashr; 112 Ibn Jubārah al Maghribī (d. 465/1072), Al Kāmil fi al Oirā'āt al 'Ashr wa al Arba'ah al Zā'idah 'Alayha; 113 Ibn Suwār (d. 496/1102), Kitāb al Mustanīr fi al Qirā'āt al 'Ashr; 114 Abū 'Alī al Khayyāt, (d. 499/1106), Kitāb al Muhadhdhab fi al Qirā'āt al 'Ashr; 115 Abū al 'Izz al Qalānisī al Wāsitī (d. 521/1127), Kitāb Irshād al Mubtadi' wa Tadhkirat al Muntahī fi al Oirā'āt al 'Ashr; 116 Ibn Khayrūn (d. 539/1144), Kitāb al Mūdīh fi al Qirā'āt al 'Ashr and Al Miftāḥ fi al Qirā'āt al 'Ashr;117 al Shahrazūrī (d. 550/1155), Kitāb al Mișbāh fi al Qirā'āt al 'Ashr;118 al Wāsiū (d. 740/1339), Al Kanz fi al Oirā'āt al 'Ashr and Al Kifāyah fi al Oirā'āt al 'Ashr;119 Ibn al Jundī (d. 769/1367), Kitāb al Bustān fi al Oirā'āt al 'Ashr; 120 Sibt al Khayvāt (d. 541/1146), Irādat al Tālib fi al Qirā'āt al 'Ashr;121 Abū Naṣr Manṣūr Ibn Ahmad al 'Irāqī (d. after 420/1029), Al Ishārah fi al Qirā'āt al 'Ashr; 122 and Ibn al Jazañ (d. 833/1429), Al Nashr fi al Oirā'āt al 'Ashr, 123 Tagrīb al Nashr fi al Oirā'āt al 'Ashr, 124 Tahbīr al Taysīr fi Oirā'āt al A'immah al 'Asharah, 125 and Tayyibat al Nashr fi al Qirā'āt al 'Ashr. 126

In support of eight readings, books have composed by Ibn Ghalbūn (d. 399/1008), Al Tadhkirah fī al Qirā'āt al Thamān;¹²⁷ Abū Ma'shar (d. 448/1056), Kitāb al Talkhīṣ fī al Qirā'āt al Thamān;¹²⁸ Abū 'Abd Allāh al Ḥaḍramī (d. 560/1164), Kitāb al Mufīd fī al Qirā'āt al Thamān (an

^{108.} Nashr, 1:74.

^{109.} Ibid.

^{110.} Ibid., 84.

^{111.} *Ibid*.

^{112.} Ibid., 75.

^{113.} Ibid., 91.

^{114.} Ibid., 82.

^{115.} Ibid., 84.

^{116.} Ibid., 86.

^{117.} Ibid.

^{118.} Ibid., 93.

^{119.} Ibid., 94.

^{120.} Ibid., 97.

^{121.} Nashr, 1:84.

^{122.} Ibid., 93.

^{123.} Edited by al Dabba', 2 vols. (Beirut: n.d.).

^{124.} Edited by Ibrāhīm 'Atwah 'Awad, 1st ed. (Cairo: 1381/1961).

^{125.} Edited by al Qādī and Qamḥāwī, 1st ed. (Cairo: 1393/1973).

^{126.} Editd by al Dabba', included in Ithaf al Bararah bi al Mutun al 'Asharah (Cairo: 1354/1935).

^{127.} Nashr, 1:73.

^{128.} Ibid., 77,

abridgement of *Kitāb al Talkhīṣ of Abū Ma'shar* [mentioned above]);¹²⁹ and Sibṭ al Khayyāṭ (d. 541/1146), *Al Mubhij fī al Qirā'āt al Thamān*. In addition to them are the readings of Ibn Muḥayṣin, al A'mash, Khalaf, and al Yazīdī. ¹³⁰

Finally, certain scholars devoted their books to the readings of the three additional *Qurrā*' or only one of them; for example, al Dānī (d. 444/1052), *Mufradat Ya*'qūb,'¹³¹ Ibn al Faḥḥām (d. 516/1122), *Mufradat Ya*'qūb;'¹³² Abū Muḥammad al Şa'īdī (d. after 650/1212), *Mufradat Ya*'qūb;'¹³³ and Ibn al Jazarī (d. 833/1429), *Al Durrah al Mutammimah fi al Qirā'āt al 'Ashr*¹³⁴ (being the readings of Abū Ja'far, Ya'qūb, and Khalaf, *Sharḥ al Samnūdī 'alā Matn al Durrah al Mutammimah fī al Qirā'āt al 'Ashr*).¹³⁵

Definition of Shādhdh

According to Ibn al Ṣalāḥ, and later Abū Shāmah and Ibn al Jazarī, shādhdh is a reading that has been narrated as Qur'an without a successive transmission or at least a famous (mashhūr) transmission accepted by the people. He refers to the material contained in Ibn Jinnī's Al Muḥtasib fī Tabyīn Wujūh Shawādhdh al Qirā'āt wa al Īḍāḥ 'anhā¹³⁶ as an example.¹³⁷

According to Makkī and Ibn al Jazarī, *shādhdh* is a reading that contradicts the orthography of the 'Uthmānic *maṣāḥif* or the Arabic although it might be authentic in its chain. Alternatively, it has been transmitted in an unauthentic chain, although it corresponds with the orthography and fluent Arabic.

Another alternative is that it corresponds with the three conditions, but it is not well-known (*mashhūr*), and was not accepted by the people.¹³⁸ However, according to most scholars, *shādhdh* is the reading that is not transmitted in a successive manner.¹³⁹

Thus, al Qastallānī states that shādhdh is not regarded as Qur'an because it lacks the condition of tawātur. To support this view, he quoted Uṣūlīs, Fuqahā', and other scholars and referred to al Ghazzālī, Ibn al

^{129.} Ibid., 93.

^{130.} Ibid., 83.

^{131.} Ibid., 60.

^{132.} Ibid., 1:75-77.

^{133.} Ibid., 98.

^{134.} Edited by al Qadi and Qamhawi, 1st ed. (Cairo and Aleppo: 1393/1973).

^{135.} Edited by al Dabbā' (Cairo: n.d.).

^{136.} Edited by Nāṣif et. al, 2 vols. (Cairo: 1386-89/1966-69).

^{137.} Al Murshid al Wajīz, 184; Munjid, 18.

^{138.} Al Oadi, Al Oirā'āt al Shādhdhah, 10; see p. 128 above.

^{139.} Ibid.

Ḥājib, al Qāḍī 'Aḍud al Dīn, al Nawawī, al Sakhāwī, and most scholars as objecting to *shādhdh* readings. 140

Al Nawawī is reported to have said that it is not permitted to read shādhdh in or outside prayers. Moreover, Ibn 'Abd al Barr is reported to have stated that the scholars agreed unanimously in rejecting shādhdh readings.¹⁴¹ Al Qaṣṭallānī refers to al Adhru'ī, al Zarkashī, al Asnawī, al Nasa'ī, al Tirmidhī, and al 'Asqalānī as having forbidden reading with shādhdh.¹⁴²

Furthermore, al Sakhāwī is quoted by his pupil Abū Shāmah, with his approval, as having said that it is forbidden to read the Qur'an with *shādhdh* readings, because they contradict the consensus of the Muslims and the *tawātur*.¹⁴³

As regards use of the anomalous readings, al Şafāqisī quotes al Nuwayrī as having allowed the use of *shādhdh* in the interpretation of the Qur'an for linguistic purposes and also its use as a source to substantiate arguments in Islamic law, although this is only according to a certain group of jurisprudents, since most scholars disagree with this opinion. According to al Nuwayrī, the earlier scholars who were reported to have read with *shādhdh* must have read it only for the two purposes mentioned above, but never as Our'an.¹⁴⁴

How does one distinguish *shādhdh*? To answer this question, Ibn al Jazarī states that the books composed on *qirā'āt* are divided into two categories according to their authors:

- 1. Those who compiled the accepted readings and whose readings the people agree with unanimously, like the two books entitled Al Ghāyah of Ibn Marhān and al Hamadāmī, Ibn Mujāhid's Al Sab'ah, al Qalānisī's Irshād al Mubtadi', al Dānī's Al Taysīr, al Ahwāzī's Mūjaz, Makkī's Al Tabṣirah, Ibn Shurayḥ's Al Kāfī, Abū Ma'shar al Ṭabarī's Al Talkhīs, al Ṣafrāwī's Al I'lān, Ibn al Faḥḥām's Al Tajrīd, and al Shātibī's Ḥirz al Amānī.
- Those who compiled books or readings that they received, irrespective of whether the readings were successive or anomalous, like the books of Sibt al Khayyāt, Abū Ma'shar, al Hadhali, Shan-razūrī, Abū 'Alī al Mālikī, Ibn Fāris, and Abū 'Alī al Ahwāzī.¹⁴⁵

Ibn al Jazarī elsewhere attributes to certain unnamed scholars the practice of accepting *shādhdh* readings that were attributed to the personal codices of some Companions and their Followers. He states that most

^{140.} Lață'if al Ishārāt, 1:72-73.

^{141.} Ibid., 73.

^{142.} Ibid., 74.

^{143.} Al Murshid al Wajiz, 181-82.

^{144.} Ghayth al Naf, 7.

^{145.} Munjid, 18-19.

scholars object to *shādhdh* readings on the grounds that they are not *mutawātir* and that, even if they were authentic in transmission, they are abrogated by the final revised version or by the consensus of the Companions on the 'Uthmānic *maṣāḥif*.' 146

Development of the Concept of Shādhdh

After the compilation of the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif, the readings differing from the 'Uthmānic ones were regarded as shādhdh. Thus, to be deemed authentic, readings had to correspond with the orthography of the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif. Accordingly, the readings contradicting the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif were abandoned and destroyed.

The first development was that Ibn Mujāhid, after introducing his Al Sab'ah, regarded the other readings rather than his Al Sab'ah as shādhdh. At this stage, Ibn Jinnī composed his book Al Muḥtasib and Ibn Khālawayh wrote his books Al Badī' and Al Mukhtaṣar. They both regarded the other readings not included in the seven readings compiled by Ibn Mujāhid as shādhdh. Ibn Jinnī regards shādhdh as the readings that were not included in Ibn Mujāhid's Kitāb al Sab'ah. He reports that the people of his time described them as shadhdh. Accordingly, the term shādhdh here does not necessarily mean that which is linguistically anomalous or lughah shādhdhah.

The next step was the introduction of the three conditions for the accepted readings as a result of which any reading that omits one of the three conditions is regarded as *shādhdh*. This had the effect of accommodating the other three readings while four readings over the ten readings were finally regarded as *shādhdh*. These four anomalous readings are as follows:

The <i>Qāri</i> '	His district	First <i>Rāwī</i>	Second Rāwī
Al Ḥasan al Baṣrī	Basrah	Shujā'	Al Dūrī
(d. 21/614)		(190/805)	(246/860)
Ibn Muḥayşin	Makkah	Al Bazzī	Ibn Shunbūdh
(d. 123/740)		(250/864)	(328/939)
Al A'mash	Küfah	Al Shunbūdhī	Al Mutawwi'i
(d. 148/765)		(388/998)	(371/981)
Yaḥyā al Yazīdī	Baghdād	Sulaymān Ibn	Aḥmad Ibn
(d. 202/817)		al Ḥakam	Faraḥ
		(235/849)	$(303/915)^{150}$

^{146.} Nashr, 1:14-15.

^{147.} Al Muhtasib, 1:32.

^{148.} Ibid., 32-33.

^{149.} Ibid.

^{150.} Al Qirā'āt al Shādhdhah.

These four readings are included al Bannā' al Dimyāti's Itḥāf Fuḍalā' al Bashar bi al Qirā'āt al Araba'ata 'Ashar.¹⁵¹

The Relationship Between the Qirā'āt and the Qur'an

Al Zarkashī, followed by al Qasṭallānī and al Banna', differentiates between the Qur'an and the *qirā'āt*. According to him, the Qur'an is the revelation miraculously revealed to the Prophet, while the *qirā'āt* are the orthographical, phonetical, and linguistical variations in the readings of the Our'an. 152

In fact, no major difference exists between the authentic readings and the Qur'an, and the relation between them is that of the parts to the whole.

Although there is an overlapping and close connection between the Qur'an and the $qir\bar{a}'\bar{a}t$, this does not unite and make them the same. Thus, the difference between them remains distinguishable.

Ibn al Jazarī does not compare the definitions of Qur'an and the $qir\bar{a}'\bar{a}t$, but opts for al Zarkaslī's definition of the $qir\bar{a}'\bar{a}t$. He states that $qir\bar{a}'\bar{a}t$ is the science of knowing the agreement of the transmitters, how they differ in the transmission of the Qur'an in regards to lughah and $i'r\bar{a}b$, and the orthographical differences between the $maṣ\bar{a}hif$. 153

The Compilation of the Qirā'āt and the Earliest Compilers

The first step in the collection of the *qirā'āt* was that certain scholars started collecting *qirā'āt* and composing books on them, without restricting themselves to a fixed number of *qirā'āt*. The first scholar known to have composed a book on *qirā'āt* is Yaḥyā Ibn Ya'mur (d. 129/746), who is reported to have written a book according to the 'Uthmānic *maṣāḥif*. ¹⁵⁴ Next, Yaq'ūb Ibn Isḥāq al Ḥaḍramī (d. 205/820) composed a book on *qirā'āt* called *Al Jā'mi*. ¹⁵⁵

According to Ibn al Jazarī, the first author on the subject is Abū 'Ubayd al Qāsim Ibn Sallām (d. 224/838). His book is reported to have included twenty-five readings. ¹⁵⁶ He was followed by many other scholars

^{151.} Edited by al Dabba' (Cairo: 1359).

^{152.} Al Burhān fi 'Ulūm al Qur'ān, 1:318; Laṭā'if al Ishārāt, 1:170-71; Itḥāf Fuḍalā' al Bashar, 5.

^{153.} Munjid, 3.

^{154.} Qurtubī, 1:63.

^{155.} Al Zabīdī, Ṭabaqāt al Lughawiyyīn wa al Naḥwiyyīn, 51.

^{156.} Nashr, 1:34; Latā'if, 1:85.

who composed books on the *qirā'āt* of the cities. Aḥmad Ibn Jubayr al Kūfī (d. 258/871) is reported to have written a book on the readings of the five cities, selecting a *Qāri'* from each city. This was followed by the book of Isma'īl Ibn Isḥāq al Mālikī (d. 282/895), which is said to have contained readings of twenty *Qurrā'*. After this came al Ṭabarī (d. 310/922), whose book on *qirā'āt* is reported to have contained more than twenty readings, and al Dājūrū (d. 324/935), which is reported to have included eleven readings. They were followed by Ibn Mujāhid (d. 324/935), the first scholar known to have introduced the seven *Qurrā'* and to have selected them from the five cities of Madīnah, Makkah, Kūfah, Baṣrah, and Shām (Damascus). His book is entitled *Kitāb al Sab'ah*. The *Qurrā'* whose readings Ibn Mujāhid compiled are the following:

The <i>Qāri</i> '	His District
Nāfi' (d. 169/785)	Madinah
Ibn Kathır (d. 120/737)	Makkah
Ibn 'Āmir (d. 118/736)	Damascus
Abū 'Amr (d. 154/770)	Basrah
'Āṣim (d. 128/744)	Kūfah
Ḥamzah (d. 156/772)	Kūfah
Al Kisā'i (d. 189/804)	Kūfah

Ibn Mujāhid's work was criticized by certain scholars of his time on the grounds that it had confused the masses about the relationship of the seven aḥruf to the seven canonical readings. Accordingly, to alleviate this confusion, certain scholars are reported to have composed books on the qirā'āt of only one Qāri' or eight or ten Qurrā'. 160

In support of Ibn Mujāhid's book, his pupil Abū Ṭāhir Ibn Abī Hāshim states that people misunderstood Ibn Mujāhid, who was far too intelligent to confuse the seven aḥruf and the seven readings. ¹⁶¹ Furthermore, it is argued that he selected seven readings simply because he wanted this number to agree with the number seven that occurs with regard to the revelation of the Qur'an in seven aḥruf. ¹⁶² Ibn Mujāhid mentions in his introduction that he selected these seven Qurrā' based on the evaluation of the men rather than their qirā'āt. ¹⁶³

^{157.} Latā'if, 1:85-86; Nashr, 2:33-34.

^{158.} Edited by Shawqi Dayf (Cairo: 1972).

^{159.} Nashr, 1:36-37; Munjid, 70-71.

^{160.} Nashr, 43-44.

^{161.} Munjid, 72-73.

^{162.} Latā'if, 1:86.

^{163.} Kitāb al Sab'ah, 45-46.

Although the *Ruwāt* of his *Al Sab'ah* were numerous, Ibn Mujāhid selected only two or three *Ruwāt* for each *Qāri'*. He reduced them to facilitate readings by choosing the two most prominent among the *Ruwāt*. According to him, the following *Ruwāt* were the most knowledgeable and reliable:

The <i>Qāri'</i>	His First Rāwī	His Second Rāwī
Nāfi'	Qālūn (d. 220/835)	Warsh (d. 197/812)
Ibn Kathīr	Al Bazzī (d. 250/854)	Qunbul (d. 291/903)
Ibn 'Āmir	Hishām (d. 245/859)	Ibn Dhakwān (d. 42/856)
Abū 'Amr	Al Dūrī (d. 246/860)	Al Sūsī (d. 261/874)
'Āşim	Shu'bah (d. 193/809)	Ḥafş (d. 180/805)
Ḥamzah	Khalaf (d. 229/843)	Khallād (d. 220/835)
Al Kisā'ī	Abū al Ḥārith (d. 240/864)	Al Dūrī (d. 246/860)164

Ibn Mujāhid's work was adopted and revived among his Followers, such as Makkī Ibn Abī Ṭālib al Qaysī, who wrote Al Tabṣirah fī al Qirā'āt al Sab',165 and Al Kashf 'an Wujūh al Qirā'āt al Sab',166 and al Dānī, whose book Al Taysīr was adopted and followed by the scholars and has become the standard work for students of the seven readings in their fourteen versions.

Ibn Mujāhid regards the readings other than his al Sab'ah as shādhdh. This view was rejected by certain scholars on the grounds that many Qurrā' were claimed to be equal in status to his Al Sab'ah or even greater (such as Abū Ja'far of Madīnah (d. 128/747), the teacher of Nāfi', whom Ibn Mujāhid himself mentioned in his introduction as a learned and respected Qāri'). Furthermore, Yaq'ūb al Ḥaḍramī of Baṣrah (d. 205/820) was one of Ibn Mujāhid's own al Sab'ah before he replaced him with al Kisā'ī. The reading of Khalaf al Baghdādī (d. 229/843), in addition to these two, has been argued to be as authentic as the al Sab'ah of Ibn Mujāhid. Thus, according to this view, the successive readings are ten, these three latter readings being added to the seven of Ibn Mujāhid.

However, according to certain other scholars, some or all readings of the following *Qurrā'* are argued to be authentic and accepted: Ibn Muḥayṣin (d. 123/740) of Makkah, Al Yazīdī (d. 202/817) of Baṣrah, Al Ḥasan al Baṣrī (d. 110/720) of Baṣrah, and Al A'mash (d. 148/765) of Kūfah.

^{164.} Ibid; Al Budūr al Zāhirah, 8-9.

^{165.} Edited by al Nadawi (India: 1983).

^{166.} Edited by Ramadan, 2 vols. (Damascus: 1974).

^{167.} Al Muhtasib, 1:32-33.

^{168.} Munjid, 15; Nashr, 1:36-36.

To support this view, it is pointed out that the acceptability of a reading should be subject only to the conditions for the accepted readings, and that the transmission of some or all these readings is authentic according to certain districts or people who received it in the manner of tawātur. ¹⁶⁹ However, al Qasṭallāmī asserts that the readings that were agreed to be qirā'āt shādhdhah are these remaining four after the ten. ¹⁷⁰ Moreover, according to Ibn al Ṣalāḥ, Abū Naṣr al Subkī and his son Abū al Ḥasan, and al Baghawī, all readings over the existing ten readings are anomalous (shādhdh). ¹⁷¹

In conclusion, we may say that variations in readings have existed since the Prophet's lifetime and that all who differed in reading referred to the fact that they had been taught by the Prophet in this way. The Successors followed the Companions in this practice, and among them certain distinguished Ourra' were sent to different cities to teach the people the Our'an. The number of the Qurrā' increased, and some became famous and devoted themselves to the qirā'āt. Hence, the readings are attributed to them. Eventually the seven highly esteemed readings dominated and were canonized by the selection of Ibn Mujāhid, although an additional three readings are argued to have the same position as the seven of Ibn Mujāhid. The successive readings have been studied, together with the definition of shādhdh and its development. Thus, we find that the acceptability of readings is subject to the conditions ruling them. It is confirmed that the seven readings differ entirely from the seven ahruf, since the first compilers and books on the subject collected an unlimited number of readings. It is emphasized that riwayah is the most important condition for acceptability of any reading, and that any reading that does not correspond with riwayah or the other two conditions (agreement with the masāhif and the Arabic language) is regarded as shādhdh, obscure, or unacceptable.

Ibn Taymiyya, Fatāwa, 13:392-93; Ibn Ḥazm, Al Qirā'āt al Mashhūrah, 269-71; Nashr, 1:39.

^{170.} Laţā'if, 1:77, 170.

^{171.} Munjid, 16.



CHAPTER 7



IKHTIYĀR IN THE QIRĀ'ĀT AND ITS BASES

Ikhtiyār refers to the selection by certain qualified scholars of one or more readings from among a number of readings; ikhtiyār is based on the most authentic and fluent ways of reading in their judgment. It is reported that the choice of the Qurrā' of certain qirā'āt is based on the three conditions for accepted readings: fluency of Arabic, correspondence with the maṣāhif, and agreement of the 'āmmah on accepting them. The term 'āmmah is interpreted as meaning either the people of Madīnah and Kūfah, this being a strong reason for ikhtiyār, or the people of Makkah and Madīnah.

In discussing the attribution of qirā'āt to the Qurrā', Ibn al Jazañ states that they selected certain readings and preferred them in their own readings and teaching of their students. This ikhtiyār is exercised only in respect to selection from existing readings, and never extends to inventions or their own composition. In this connection, the word ikhtiyār occurs frequently in the books of qirā'āt, for example:

- 1. "The ikhtiyār of Yaq'ūb is followed by the common [people] of Baṣrah."
- 2. "The people agreed upon their *ikhtiyār*" (i.e., the *Qurrā'* of the ten readings).⁶
- 3. "In this book I have mentioned the readings of distinguished *Qurrā*' who were famous by their *qirā'āt* and *ikhtiyārāt*."

^{1.} Al Tibyān, p. 99.

^{2.} See Chapter 6, 119-125.

^{3.} Al Murshid al Wajīz, 172; Al Ibānah, 89.

^{4.} Nashr, 1:51.

^{5.} Ghāyat al Nihāyah, 2:43.

^{6.} Nashr, 1:37.

^{7.} Ibid.

4. Ibn Khālawayh in the work attributed to him, Al Ḥujjah fī al Qirā'āt al Sab', mentions that the seven Qurrā' based their ikhtiyār on the āthār (traditions).

No doubt exists as to how essential it is to depend on the āthār for any ikhtiyār in the qirā'āt, nor that it is not left to individual discretion to adopt or select readings that are not subject to the conditions for accepted readings mentioned above. Accordingly, any reading that does not conform to these conditions is rejected and regarded as shādhdh.¹⁰

The next step after ikhtiyār and the compilation of the qirā'āt was that certain scholars started composing books to establish the authenticity of selected readings on the basis of transmission, correspondence with the maṣāhif, and fluency of Arabic (bearing in mind that the philologists differed concerning the degree of fluency required for accepted or preferred readings). Accordingly, the Ourrā' and the philologists had differing views. and hence their ikhtivār differed. The first author known to have composed a book on this subject is al Mubarrid (d. 285/898), who wrote Kitāb Ihtijāj al Oirā'āt.11 He was followed by Abū Bakr Ibn al Sarrāj (d. 316/928), author of Kitāb Ihtijāj al Qirā'ah;12 Ibn Darastuwayh (died after 330), author of Kitāb al Ihtijāj li al Qurrā'; 13 and Ibn Migsam (d. 332/943), author of several books on airā'āt, Kitāb Ihtijāj al Oirā'āt, Kitāb al Sab'ah bi 'Ilalihā al Kabīr, Kitāb al Sab'ah al Awsat, and Kitāb al Sab'ah al Saghīr known as Shifa' al Sudūr, 4 Abū Tāhir 'Abd al Wāhid al Bazzār (d. 349/960), a pupil of Ibn Mujāhid and author of Kitāb al Intisar li Hamzah; 15 Muhammad Ibn al Hasan al Ansārī (d. 351/962), to whom is attributed Kitāb al Sab'ah bi 'Ilalīhā al Kabīr; 16 Ibn Khālawayh (d. 37)/980), to whom is attributed Kitāb al Hujjah fi al Qirā'āt al Sab'; 17 Abū 'Alī al Fārisī, the author of a large book in support of his teacher Ibn Mujāhid's Kitāb al Sab'ah entitled Kitāb al Hujjah li al Qurrā' al Sab'ah;18 Abū Zar'ah 'Abd al Rahmān Ibn Muḥam-

^{8.} Edited by Mukarram, 2nd ed. (Beirut: Dar al Shuruq, 1397/1977).

^{9.} Ibid., 62.

^{10.} See Chapter 6.

^{11.} Al Fihrist, 65.

^{12.} Ibid., 86.

^{13.} Ibid., 38, 68-69.

^{14.} Ibid., 35-36.

^{15.} Ibid., 35.

^{16.} Ibid., 50.

^{17.} Edited by Mukarram, 2nd ed. (Beirut, 1397/1977). The authenticity of this attribution to Ibn Khālawayh is disputed; see Muḥammad al 'Ābid al Fāsī, "Nisbat al Ḥujjah ilā Ibn Khālawayh La Taṣiḥḥ," Majallat al Lisān al 'Arabī 8, 1:5, 21; al Afghānī, (ed.), Ḥujjat al Qirā'āt, 24.

Al Fihrist, 69. This book of Ibn Făris is edited by al Najjăr et al., vol. 1, 1st ed. (Cairo: 1966).

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mad Ibn Zanjalah (one of al Fārisī's students), whose *Ḥujjatu al Qirā'āt*'⁹ was composed before 403/1012;²⁰ and Abū Bakr Aḥmad Ibn 'Ubayd Allāh Ibn Idrīs, whose *al Mukhtār fī Ma'ānī Qirā'āt Ahl al Amṣār* includes the reading of Yaq'ūb al Ḥaḍramī in addition to the seven of Ibn Mujāhid.²¹

In the fifth century, we find Makki's (d. 437/1080) book al Kashf 'an Wujūh al Qirā'āt al Sab' wa 'Ilalihā wa Ḥujajihā.²²

Refutation of Free Exercise of Choice in Selection of Readings

Ibn al Bāqillānī is concerned that certain people might misinterpret the differences among the *Qurrā'* as meaning that they were free to choose whatever way of reading they desired. He asserts that this view is groundless and that it is agreed unanimously that no single reading should be accepted unless it has been transmitted with authentic chains. The condition of *riwāyah*, he says, is most essential and obvious from the practice of all *Qurrā'* of the Qur'an, since they did not react immediately by rejecting any reading they heard from each other for the first time, fearing that it might be authentic and based on the *riwāyah* according to the other readers. In this connection, al A'mash is reported as having said that when he read in a different way from what he had been taught by his teacher, Ibrāhīm al Nakha'ī, the latter would not say, "It is wrong" but, "Read so and so."²³

Ibn al Bāqallānī comments that since this was the practice of the salaf, it is unlikely that the $Qurr\bar{a}'$ would allow the Qur'an to be read without fulfillment of the condition of $riw\bar{a}yah$. In support of the condition of $riw\bar{a}yah$, we find many statements attibuted to distinguished and famous $Qurr\bar{a}'$ of the Qur'an, among whom we may quote the following:

- 1. Nāfi' is reported to have said that he had been taught the Qur'an from seventy *Qurrā'* among the Followers and that he based his *ikhtiyār* on the agreement of two of them.²⁵
- 2. Ibn Mujāhid states that Nāfi' was following the āthār of the Qurrā' before him.26
- 3. Sufyān al Thawñ is reported to have supported the reading of Ḥamzah on the grounds that "he had not read a single *harf* of the Our'an with-

^{19.} Edited by Sa'id al Afghām, 2nd ed. (Beirut: 1399/1979).

^{20.} Ibid., 30, 39.

^{21.} Ibid., 22

^{22.} Edited by Ramadan, 2 vols. (Damascus: 1394/1974).

^{23.} Nukat al Intisār, 415.

^{24.} Ibid., 416.

^{25.} Ibn Mujāhid, Kitāb al Sab'ah, 62.

^{26.} Ibid., 54.

- out depending on āthār."27
- 4. Abū 'Amr Ibn al 'Alā' is reported to have said that if he had been free to read in certain ways as he desired, he would have read so and so.²⁸
- 5. Abū 'Amr Ibn al 'Alā' is also reported as having been asked, concerning his own reading and *ikhtiyār*, whether he had heard it all from the *salaf*. He replied that if he had not heard it, he would not have read it, because reading of the Qur'an should be according to the sunnah (i.e., *riwāyah*).²⁹

Accordingly, Ibn al Bāqillānī states that it is forbidden to read in a way not corresponding with *riwāyah*.³⁰

As regards the grounds on which the *Qurrā'* support their *ikhtiyār*, using grammatical and other evidence, Ibn al Bāqillārū says that the *Qurrā'* who substantiate their own readings all agree that they have been transmitted from the Prophet himself and that there is no objection to adding to the evidence of *riwāyah* other logical evidence in support of *riwāyah*. No one among the *Qurrā'* is doing more than supporting his *ikhtiyār*, explaining why he selects this reading but not rejecting or refuting the readings of other *Qurrā'*. Ibn al Bāqillārū only says in support of his own *ikhtiyār* that this way is the most fluent in Arabic and more beautiful than the others.³¹

Furthermore, al Qaṣṭallānī states that preference for certain readings is based only on conformance with the most eloquent and best known ways in the Arabic language, since they are all authentic and accepted readings.³² Hence, linguistic evidence in support of the qirā'āt is used only to substantiate the reason for choosing or selecting this way of reading, but never as the sole reason for ikhtiyār. In this connection, Ibn al Munayyir disagrees with al Zamakhshanī, who thought that the seven distinguished Qurrā' had exercised their ikhtiyār as if they were free from the condition of riwāyah.³³ The right of using ikhtiyār among the various authentic readings is still permissible among the scholars, provided that it is according to the riwāyah and used by qualified and authorized Qurrā'.³⁴

The right of *ikhtiyār* is restricted to use only in accordance with *riwā-yah*. A free hand in using synonyms or reading according to the meanings of the vocabulary of the Qur'an is not regarded as *ikhtiyār*, because it contradicts the conditions for accepted readings. Hence, it is strongly rejected

^{27.} Ibid., 82.

^{28.} Ghayāt al Nihāyah, 1:290.

^{29.} Nukat al Intisar, 417.

^{30.} Ibid., 418.

^{31.} Ibid., 419-20.

^{32.} Latā'if al Ishārāt, 1:170.

^{33.} Al Intisāf with Al Kashshāf, 2:69-70.

^{34.} Nashr, 1:44.

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and considered beyond *shādhdh*.³⁵ The scholars have agreed unanimously that this kind of reading is forbidden and should be stopped and destroyed. Certain examples, which are attributed to personal codices, were regarded as either unauthentic in their transmission or abrogated, according to the final revealed version of the Qur'an.³⁶

Goldziher uses examples of this latter kind of reading to conclude that they were used to make fundamental changes in the successive readings,³⁷ ignoring the fact that all readings of this kind in contradiction of the common accepted readings are regarded as *shādhdh* and isolated reports opposed to *mutawātir*.³⁸ Abū 'Ubaydah, on the other hand, is reported as having said that the purpose of this kind of anomalous reading is to explain the meanings of the well-known (*mashhūr*) readings.³⁹

The written text of the Qur'an is agreed to represent the first harf in which it has been revealed. Thus, the various other ways of reading in accordance with the permission to read the Qur'an in seven aḥruf, regardless of the scholars' differences in their interpretation, were only variations in the ways of reading, which had to correspond with riwāyah. In this respect, the Companions and their Followers referred their readings to the teachings of the Prophet himself. Two examples are 'Umar Ibn al Khaṭṭāb and Hishām Ibn Ḥakīm. Ibn Ḥakīm. Ibn Ḥakīm.

Thus Ibn Khālawayh, in his Kitāb I'rāb Thalāthīn Sūrah min al Qur'ān al Karīm, ⁴² states that the only authentic and accepted reading in the beginning of 89:1 is "sabbiḥ isma Rabbika," although, linguistically it could be read as "sabbīḥ (bi) ism(i) Rabbika," as we find elsewhere in the Qur'an, or "fasibbiḥ bi ḥamdi Rabbika" (15:98). But this reading is not accepted, because the qirā'ah should be according to the riwāyah.⁴³

Ibn al Jazarī asserts that to use free analogy in selecting certain readings is forbidden. He attributes to certain Companions and their Followers ('Umar, Zayd, Ibn al Mukandir, 'Urwah, 'Umar Ibn 'Abd al 'Azīz, and al Sha'bī) the statement: "Qirā'ah should be according to the sunnah (i.e., transmission of generations, one from each other) and everyone should read as he has been taught."

^{35.} Nukat al Intişār, 321-330; Munjid, 17-18.

^{36.} For more information, see Chapter 4.

^{37.} Goldziher, Al Madhāhib al Islāmiyyah, 17; c.f. Madhāhib al Tafsīr al Islāmī, 19.

^{38.} Al Qirā'āt wa al Lahajāt, 192-93.

^{39.} Itgān, 1:82.

^{40.} See Chapter 3, 67.

^{41.} Bukhārī, 6:48 (quoted in Chapter 1, 3-4).

^{42.} Published in Cairo: 1360/1941.

^{43.} Ibid., 54.

^{44.} Nashr, 1:17.

The 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif are said to have been freed from vocalization and dotting in order to preserve various authentic readings that correspond with the orthography of the maṣāḥif, but not to create readings according to every possible way of reading the text.⁴⁵

For example, Sibawayh, in his Al Kitāb, 46 supports certain qirā'āt and objects to others, although they might be substantiated linguistically on the ground that the qirā'ah should be according to the sunnah and should not be rejected by the 'āmmah. 47 He uses certain qirā'āt in support of grammatical arguments to substantiate the authenticity of certain grammatical constructions. For example, he says the evidence for the authenticity of a certain construction is the reading of the people of Madinah. 48

We find that earlier the Companions and their Followers supported certain chosen qirā'āt, mentioning the reasons for which this way or that is preferred. The first man among the Companions known as having adopted the practice of choosing certain qirā'āt and explaining the reason for his choices was Ibn 'Abbās, 49 who is reported as having read nanshuruhā (2:259) and substantiated his reading by quoting "thumma idhā shā'a ansharah" (80:22).

Among the earlier philologists we find al Khalīl Ibn Aḥmad, followed by his student Sībawayh, using grammatical, morphological, and phonetical evidence to substantiate the authenticity of certain qirā'āt.⁵⁰

We also notice this phenomenon of choosing and selecting certain *qirā'āt* and of supporting them with evidence in the discussions of Qur'anic scholars and in books on such topics as *tafsīr*, ⁵¹ *ma'ānī al Qur'ān*, ⁵² and *i'rāb al Qur'ān*. ⁵³

For example, al Zujjāj in his *Ma'ānī al Qur'ān wa l'rābuh*⁵⁴ studies linguistically the various ways of reading *al ḥamdu* (1:2) and adopts *raf'* because it corresponds with the authentic *riwāyah* that should be followed in the Our'an.⁵⁵

Hārūn Ibn Mūsā al A'war (d. before 200/815) is reported to have gathered certain readings and to have investigated their transmission and other

^{45.} Munjid, 56.

^{46.} Published in Būlāq: 1316/1898.

^{47.} Ibid., 1:74.

^{48.} Al Kitāb, 1:417 and passim.

^{49.} Al Bahr al Muhīt, 2:293.

^{50.} Al Kitāb, passim.

^{51.} Abū Ḥayyān, Al Bahr al Muhīt, in 8 vols.

^{52.} Al Farra', Ma'ānī al Qur'ān, in 3 vols.

^{53.} Ibn Khālawayh, I'rāb Thalāthīn Sūrah min al Qur'ān al Karīm (Cairo: 1360/1941).

^{54.} Edited by 'Abd al Jalīl Shalabī (Cairo: 1394/1974).

^{55.} Ibid., 1:7.

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evidence in order to authenticate them.⁵⁶ The people of his time objected to this work of al A'war on the grounds that the acceptability and authenticity of any *qirā'ah* should be subject only to its successive transmission.⁵⁷

In this connection, Abū Ḥayyān reports Abū al 'Abbās Aḥmad Ibn Yaḥyā as having not preferred any one of the seven readings and having said: "When the seven Qurrā' differ concerning the i'rāb and the Qur'an, I do not prefer one to another, but when I turn to the ordinary speech of the people I prefer the form which is stronger." Abū Ḥayyān agrees with the above statement, referring to Abū al 'Abbās as reliable, a man of religion, and a scholar of grammar and language.⁵⁸

According to certain writers, numerous variations in ways of reading came about because the masāhif were free from vocalization and dotting. Hence, the Ourrā' had differences of opinion as a result of the different possible readings.⁵⁹ An early example of this tendency is provided by Ibn Migsam (d. 328/939), who is said to have relied only on the written text of the mushaf and the Arabic language. He was prevented from propagating his views by the 'Abbasid authorities, who were backed by the consensus of Our'anic scholars of his time. His approach is not valid for. as we have seen, the qirā'ah was subject to the riwāyah, and we have the example of the argument between 'Umar and Hisham (where each of them referred to the Prophet as his authority). 60 The various readings were only according to the riwayah and existed before the compilation of the Our'an and the distribution of the 'Uthmānic masāhif to the amsār (which were themselves accompanied by distinguished Ourrā' to teach the people of their cities according to the riwayah). 61 Moreover, if the people had been left free to read in any way possible compatible with the orthography of the mushaf, it might have been expected that all such readings would have been accepted. For example, from the grammatical point of view, the Qur'anic phrase kun fa yakūn (3:47; 36:82) can be read either with nash or raf'. But the only way accepted in 3:47 is raf', while both ways are accepted in 36:82.62

Another example of this kind of this reading is found in 22:23, where in the Uthmanic text the word ijj is written with alif (the same word is written without alif in 35:33). If the Qurrā' had followed only the orthog-

^{56.} Munjid, 69.

^{57.} Ibid., 69-70.

^{58.} Al Bahr al Muhīt, 4:87.

See, for example, Brockelmann, Tārīkh al Adab al 'Arabī, 1:134; Al Madhāhib al Islāmiyyah, 4; c.f. Goldziher, Madhāhib al Tafsīr al Islāmī, 8; al Khaūb, al Furqān, 22 (also 17); al Ibyān, Al Mawsū'ah al Qur'āniyyah, 1:80; al Khū'n, Al Bayān, 181.

^{60.} Bukhārī, 6:482-83.

^{61.} Al Qirā'āt wa al Lahajāt, 183; Chapter 2, 32.

^{62.} Al Kurdi, Tārīkh al Our'ān wa Gharā'ib Rasmih wa Hukmih, 115.

raphy, they would have read the word with naṣb in the first example and with khafd in the latter. However, Nāfi' and 'Āṣim read both words with naṣb, while the rest of the $Qurr\bar{a}$ ' read the first with naṣb and the latter with khafd.

In regard to dotting, the only way of reading found in 2:123 is $wa \ l\bar{a}$ $tanfa'uha \ shaf\bar{a}'atun$, while a similar example is read with both $y\bar{a}'$ and $t\bar{a}'$, in the same surah, i.e., $wa \ l\bar{a} \ yuqbalu \ minh\bar{a} \ shaf\bar{a}'atun$ and $wa \ l\bar{a} \ tuqbalu \ minh\bar{a} \ shaf\bar{a}'atun$ (2:48).

In 4:94, the word فسوا is read as both fa tathabbatū and fa ta-bayyanū, because both were transmitted, while in 9:114 the word فال is readable according to the orthography as أيان iyyāhu. This is the authentic reading attributed to the 'āmmah, while the other possible way, فال abāhu, is an anomalous reading contradictory to the common reading and is regarded as a strange reading (although it is attributed to Ḥammāh al Rāwiyah). Furthermore, in 7:48 the word سكرون is read by the 'āmmah as tastakbirūn, as opposed to the strange reading tastakthirūn, which is regarded as shādhdh on the grounds that it contradicts the riwāyah. 65

On the other hand in certain words we find various authentic readings (e.g., Jibrīl, Jabrīl, Jabra'īl, and Jabra'il), while the orthography itself does not provide them all (which also confirms how essential riwāyah is).66 Some other Our'anic words are written differently from the usual way, but indicate only a single reading, which is that which is according to the riwāvah. Examples of this kind are لأَاذْبَحْتُهُ (27:21), الأَاذْبَحْتُهُ 18:23), and (89:23), with the addition of an alif, which are read as la adhbahannahū, li shay'in, and jī'a. In this connection we also find بأييد (51:47) and بأييك (68:6), with the addition of a yā', which are read as bi aydin and bi ayyikum.67 Accordingly, the original basis of any qirā'ah is agreed to be the riwayah, while the orthography is always dependent on this.68 Hence, in practice we find that the Qurrā' read in some places with consensus and differ in others although they are orthographically the same. For example, they agree unanimously on mālik al mulk (3:36) and malik al nās (114:2). However, they differ in 1:4 because certain Qurrā' read malik and others read mālik, and these readings are all authentic because of the soundness of their transmission.69

^{63.} Abū Shāmah, Ibrāz al Ma'ānī, 406.

^{64.} Al Kurdi, Tārīkh al Qur'ān, 114-15.

^{65.} Shalabī, Rasm al Mushaf wa al Ihtijāj bi li al Qirā'āt, 28.

^{66.} Al Kurdi, Tārīkh al Qur'ān, 115-16.

^{67.} Ibid., 116.

^{68.} Abū Shāmah, Ibrāz al Ma'ānī, 406.

^{69.} Al Nashr, 1:271, 2:239, 405; Taḥbīr al Taysīr, 41, 96, 200.

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Moreover, we find certain theoretical ways of reading that correspond with the orthography of the *maṣāḥif* and agree with the Arabic language but which no one among the *Qurrā'* is reported as having read. This also tends to confirm how essential *riwāyah* is. In this connection, scholars refer to wa *Qur'ānan faraqnāhu li taqra'ahu 'alā al nāsi 'alā mukthin* (17:106), which from the linguistic point of view could be read *mukth*, *makth*, and *mikth*, but is read by the consensus of the *Qurrā'* only as *mukth*.⁷⁰

Goldziher advances the theory that these different readings arise from certain Qurrã' interpreting a vocalized and undotted text in accordance with their own understanding at a relatively late date. However, as we have seen above, this theory overlooks the importance of riwāyah and ignores the existence of many scholars who had devoted their studies to this subject. Whatever the reasons for the existence of variant readings, whether accepted or shādhdh, the explanations that Goldziher offers do not seem to rest on any real evidence. For example, he refers to a report that Qatādah (d. 117/735) (2:54) read fa aqīlū anfusakum instead of the authentic fa uqtulū anfusakum. Goldziher maintains that Qatādah considered the latter reading to convey a severe punishment that was incompatible with the sin mentioned and thus recited the passage in the alternative way attributed to him above. Commenting on this, Goldziher says: "In this example we see an objective point of view which was the reason behind the differing reading."

However, to refute this we find that all versions except one report Qatādah as having read fa uqtulū anfusakum and having interpreted it as meaning that they stood fighting each other in two rows until they were asked to stop and that the result was martyrdom for those who were killed and repentance for those who remained alive. 72 Al Qurtubi, who reports Qatādah as having read fa aqīlū anfusakum, interprets the word aqīlū (save) as meaning "save yourselves from error by killing," thereby giving it the same meaning as aqtulū.73 Another example of this is Goldziher's treatment of 48:9, in which he uses certain authentic readings as opposed to others. Thus he notes that tu'azzirūhu is read by certain Ourrā' as $tu'azziz\bar{u}hu$, using $z\bar{a}v$ instead of $r\bar{a}'$. The reason behind this supposed change, he suggests, is that they may have wished to avoid the former word because it implies material aid, while the latter word is less restricted in meaning.74 In fact, however, both words occur in different places in the Qur'an (for example, in 7:157 and 48:9) with no apparent difference in meaning. Furthermore, in the Arabic lexicon, 'azzara and nasara are

^{70.} Al Baḥr al Muḥīţ, 6:88.

^{71.} Al Madhāhib al Islāmiyyah, 5; c.f. Madhāhib al Tafsīr al Islāmī, 11.

^{72.} Al Tabari, Tafsīr, 2:76; c.f. Ibn Kathīr, Tafsīr, 1:92.

^{73.} Al Qurtubī, 1:342.

^{74.} Madhāhib al Tafsīr al Islāmī, 11.

not different. Ibn Manzūr interprets 'azzarahu as fakhkhamahu, wa 'azzamahu, wa a'ānahu, wa qawwāhu, and wa naṣarahu. He quotes in support of his interpretation li tu'azzirūhu wa tuwaqqirūhu (48:9) and wa 'azzartumūhum (5:12).75 He adds that in the Arabic language al tāzīr means al naṣr by tongue and sword. He reports Waraqah Ibn Nawfal as having said in support of the Prophet at the very beginning of the revelation, "If he is sent while I am alive I will aid him" (sa u'azziruhu wa anṣuruhu). Ibn Manzūr says that here al ta'zīr means aid, elevated respect, and succor time after time.76 Thus it cannot be maintained that 'azzara and 'azzaza are different in meaning.

With the same general approach, Goldziher considers that certain differences among the *Qurrā'* are because of their fear of attributing to God and his Apostle something that may detract from their attributes.

In support of this theory, Goldziher quotes 37:12: bal 'ajibta wa vaskharūn (Truly do they marvel while they ridicule), in which some of the Ourrā' of Kūfah read 'ajibta with fath, while the common reading of the rest of the Ourrā' is with dammah (i.e., 'ajibtu). He argues that the Mufassirūn interpreted the word 'ajab as referring to God with a difference of opinions, while some preferred to attribute the "marveling" to the Prophet, since it is inappropriate to attribute this to God. He maintains that the original meaning is 'ajibtu with dammah and quotes al Tabari. In fact, however, al Tabari authenticates and accepts both readings on the grounds that the Qur'an has been revealed in two ways," although he does mention that Shurayh (d. 80/699) read 'ajibta with fath and objected to the other reading on the grounds that 'ajab cannot be attributed to God. However, Ibrāhīm al Nakha'ī is reported as having objected to Shurayh's argument and stated that 'Abd Allah Ibn Mas'ūd, who used to read 'ajibtu with dammah, was more knowledgable than Shurayh.78 According to Goldziher, the two readings contradict one another and the acceptance by al Tabarī of both readings indicates that it was difficult at his time to abandon one reading in favor of the other.79 However, al Tabarī in his discussion confirms the authenticity of both readings and states that, although they differ in meaning, they are both correct and sound. He states in support of this view that the Prophet marveled at the verses that he was given, that the polytheists ridiculed him for this, and that God marveled at what the polytheists said.

^{75.} Lisān al 'Arab, 6:237.

^{76.} Ibid.

^{77.} Al Tabari, Tafsīr, 23:29.

^{78.} Al Kashshāf, 4:37-38.

^{79.} Madhāhib al Tafsīr al Islāmī, 33-35.

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Furthermore, al Qurtubī reports 'Alī Ibn Sulaymān as having said that both readings agree to give one meaning and that the reference in both 'ajibta and 'ajibtu is to the Prophet. He also quotes Abū Ja'far al Naḥḥās as having approved this interpretation and regarded it as sound. Al Qurtubī adds that the meaning of bal 'ajibtu may be something like, "Truly their action is heinous in my eyes," and he quotes al Bayhaqī in support of this as having connected the word 'ajiba in this context with the hadith 'ajiba Rabbuka. Moreover, al Naqqāsh is reported as having interpreted bal 'ajibtu as bal ankartu. Al Ḥasan Ibn al Faḍl is reported as having supported this by stating that 'ajab, when it refers to God, means inkār and ta'zīm, and that this is an old Arab usage (wa huwa lughat al 'Arab). 81

In fact, if readings were really not subject to the *riwāyah* or if a supposed fear of attributing to God and his Apostle certain defects had led the *Qurrā'* to change some ways of reading, as Goldziher thought, one might expect the *Qurrā'* to have changed many similar examples in the Qur'an. In fact, they have done nothing except interpret them according to the Arabic language. Examples may be quoted as follows:

God disdains not ($l\bar{a}$ yasta $l\bar{n}$) to use the similitude of things lowest as well as highest. (2:26)

They plot and plan and God too plans, but the best of planners is God. (8:30).

Nay, both his hands are widely outstretched. He gives and spends (of His bounty, as He pleaseth). (5:67)

Soon shall We settle your affairs, O both you worlds! (55:31)82

Moreover, Shurayḥ's opinion was rejected and regarded as unacceptable on the grounds that he contradicted the *tawātur*.⁸³ Finally, there is no evidence whatever for Goldziher's hypothesis that 'ajibtu with dammah is the original reading.

The *Mufassirūn* interpret the verse so that both readings confirm one another, ⁸⁴ and the *Qurrā'* accept and authenticate the two readings, because they agree with the conditions for accepted readings. ⁸⁵

Goldziher further argues that, in 12:110, the original reading is $kadhab\bar{u}$ and that the Muslims were confused and faced with the problem of finding a way to discard this reading. According to him, many solutions were sug-

^{80.} For the text of this hadith and others, see Qurtubī, 15:70-71.

^{81.} Ibid., 71.

^{82.} Hammūdah, Al Qirā'āt wa al Lahajāt, 199-206.

^{83.} Al Zamakhshari, Al Khashshāf, 4:38; al Alūsi, Rūh al Ma'ānī, 23:70.

^{84.} Al Tabari, Tafsīr, 23:29; al Zamakhshari, Al Khashshāf, 23:70.

^{85.} Nashr, 2:356; Al Kashf, 2:223; Hujjat al Qirā'āt, 606-08.

gested, a fact that indicates that it was the original reading and that the readings kudhibū and kudhdhibū were introduced subsequently by the Qurrā'. 86

Once again, however, it seems pointless to assert that any one reading is the original, since the text of the Qur'an does not provide any evidence for such a claim. This reading, in fact, is not attributed to any $Q\bar{a}ri'$ except Mujāhid.⁸⁷ Indeed, it has been argued that the original readings are $kudhib\bar{u}$ and $kudhdhib\bar{u}$, which are the common ones, and that the anomalous reading that is attributed solely to Mujāhid is derived from the two authentic readings.⁸⁸ (and not the opposite, as Goldziher maintained).⁸⁹

Mujāhid is reported as having interpreted the verse as meaning, "When the Apostles gave up hope of their people (who rejected their message) being punished and that their people thought that the Apostles told a lie, there reached them Our help." 90

However, al Țabarī states that this reading has been rejected unanimously on the grounds that it contradicts the authentic readings of the amṣār. He argues that if the reading were permissible, it would have been interpreted in a way not contradicting the successive readings and would have been better than that of Mujāhid. The best interpretation for Mujāhid's reading, according to al Ṭabarī, is, "Until when the Apostles give up hope of their people who treated them as liars—being punished by God—and the Apostles knew that their people lied . . ."

Al Tabarī offers this interpretation, on the authority of al Ḥasan and Qatādah, that zann may give the meaning of 'ilm (knowledge). Thus, both Mujāhid's reading and his interpretation contradict the consensus of the Qurrā' and Mufassirūn. Ibn al Jazarī states that Abū al Qāsim al Hudhalī, in his Al Kāmil, attributes to Mujāhid certain readings with a nonauthentic isnād and elsewhere describes al Hudhalī's book as full of errors concerning the asānīd of qirā'āt and as containing unaccepted readings that have no authentic transmission. Ibn Khālawayh also includes this reading of Mujāhid in the anomalous readings.

Goldziher mentions ' \bar{A} 'ishah's contribution to this discussion, but his account is misleading, in that the discussion was concerned purely with the question of $kudhdhib\bar{u}$ as opposed to $kudhib\bar{u}$, which she rejected in

^{86.} Madhāhib al Tafsīr al Islāmī, 42.

^{87.} Al Tabari, Tafsīr, 16:309-10; Ibn Khālawayh, Mukhtasar, 65; Fath al Bārī, 8:296.

^{88.} Al Qirā'āt wa al Lahajāt, 209.

^{89.} Al Madhāhib al Islāmiyyah, 25; c.f. Madhāhib al Tafsīr al Islāmī, 41-42.

^{90.} Al Tabari, Tafsīr, 16:310.

^{91.} Ibid.

^{92.} Ibid., 16:309-10.

^{93.} Ghāyat al Nihāyah, 2:42.

^{94.} Ibid., 1:349.

^{95.} Mukhtaşar, 65.

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favor of the former 6 (although her objection was in fact to the interpretation attributed to Ibn 'Abbās rather than the qirā'ah itself). 97

Al Qasṭallānī argues that 'Ā'ishah's objection was to the reading $kidhib\bar{u}$, on the grounds that she had not received it in the manner of $taw\bar{a}tur$. As for the reading $kadhab\bar{u}$, it does not appear at all in this discussion, and Goldziher is incorrect in supposing that she was objecting to $kadhab\bar{u}$.

While Mujāhid's reading is regarded as *shādhdh*, being attributed only to him, two authentic and successive readings are among the highly esteemed seven canonical readings. The first is *kudhibū*, which is attributed to Ubayy, 'Alī, Ibn Mas'ūd, and Ibn 'Abbās among the Companions; to their Followers Mujāhid, Talḥah, and al A'mash; and to 'Āṣim, Ḥamzah, and al Kisā'ī, who represent the Kūfans among the seven distinguished *Qurrā'*. Al Zamakhsharī based his *tafsīr* on this reading and interprets it as meaning, "Until when the Apostles thought that their souls were telling them a lie when they told them that they would be victorious," or, "Their hope told them a lie."

Goldziher misunderstood al Zamakhsharī, believing that his interpretation represented $kadhab\bar{u}$. However, a careful reading of the interpretation confirms that it is based on $kudhib\bar{u}$, and the matter is resolved further by the fact that he mentions $kadhab\bar{u}$ separately, attributing it to Mujāhid. The second authentic reading is $kudhdhib\bar{u}$, which is attributed to 'Ā'ishah. It is also attributed to al Ḥasan, Qatādah, Muḥammad Ibn Ka'b, Abū Rajā', Ibn Abi Mulaykah, and al A'raj among the Followers, and to Nāfi', Ibn Kathīr, Ibn 'Āmir, and Abū 'Amr Ibn al 'Alā among the seven distinguished $Qurr\bar{a}$ '.

'Ā'ishah is reported to have interpreted this verse according to her reading $kudhdhib\bar{u}$ as "until when the Apostles gave up hope of their people who had treated them as liars becoming believers, and the Apostles had come to think that they had been treated as liars among their own fellows, there reached them the help of God." 106

^{96.} Al Ţabari, Tafsīr, 16:306-08; Fath al Bārī, 8:367f.

^{97.} Al Țabari, Tafsīr, 16:306-07.

^{98.} Irshād al Sārī, 7:216.

^{99.} Al Bahr al Muhīt, 5:354.

^{100.} Al Kashshāf, 3:510.

^{101.} Al Madhāhib al Islāmiyyah, 25; c.f. Madhāhib al Tafsīr al Islāmī.

^{102.} Al Kashshāf, 3:510.

^{103.} Al Ţabari, Tafsīr, 16:308.

^{104.} Ibid.; Al Bahr al Muhīt, 5:354.

^{105.} Al Tabari, Tafsīr, 16:309.

^{106.} Ibid., 16:308.

Al Țabarī attributes to certain other scholars who read $kudhdhib\bar{u}$ the following interpretation of the verse: "Until when the Apostles came to think that (meaning by zann in this context 'ilm [knowledge]) their people treated them as liars, there reached them our help." This latter interpretation of the word zann to mean 'ilm is attributed to al Hasan and Qatādah. However, al Ṭabarī objects to the interpretation on the grounds that it contradicts the views of the Companions. He adds that the Arabs use the word zann in the place of 'ilm only where the knowledge is acquired by the means of reports or when it is not physically seen. Thus the word zann in this verse cannot mean 'ilm. 108

In another example, which Goldziher also quotes in support of his theory, Ibn 'Abbās is reported as having read fa in āmanū bi mā āmantum bi hū or fa in āmānū bi al ladhī āmantum bi hū as opposed to the common reading that corresponds with the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif: fa in āmanū bi mithli mā āmantum bi hi (2:137). Ibn 'Abbās bases his objection to the common reading on the grounds that there is no being similar to God. 109

However, al Țabarī states that this report about Ibn 'Abbās contradicts the common *maṣāhif* of the Muslims and the consensus of the *Qurrā'*.¹¹⁰ Furthermore, Ibn 'Abbās himself is reported as having agreed on the reading with the 'Uthmānic *maṣāḥif*.¹¹¹ According to al Ṭabarī, the interpretation of this verse should be: "When they believe in what is mentioned in this passage of the books of God and his Prophets as you believe in them, they are indeed on the right path." He concludes that what is meant by similarity in this connection is the similarity between two beliefs, not between what is believed.¹¹²

On this point, al Zajjāj argues that if someone were to ask if anything is similar to $\bar{\imath}m\bar{a}n$ other than $\bar{\imath}m\bar{a}n$ itself, the reply is that the meaning is clear; that is, if they believe as you believe in the prophets and believe in unity as you do, they are therefore on the straight path and have become Muslims like you.¹¹³

Furthermore, the author of Muqaddimat Kitāb al Mabā $n\bar{i}^{114}$ studies the construction of this verse linguistically and supports its authenticity on the following grounds: It means if they believe as you believe; the letter $b\bar{a}'$ is added only for emphasis $(ta'k\bar{i}d)$ and the sense of the phrase is mithla

^{107.} Ibid.

^{108.} Ibid., 16:309.

^{109.} Ibid., 2:114.

^{110.} Ibid.

^{111.} Ibid., 2:113.

^{112.} Ibid., 2:114.

^{113.} Ma'ānī al Qur'ān wa l'rābuhu, 1:195.

^{114.} Anonymous, see Muqaddimatan, 116.

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mā āmantum bi hi; and the word mithl is added in order to provide corroboration (tawkīd) and the sense of the phrase is thus fa in āmānu bi mā āmantum bi hi.

In this connection, reference is made to 42:11, laysa ka mithlihi shay'un (nothing is like Him), where the word mithl is added for the purpose of intensification so that the meaning of the passage is: "There is nothing whatever like unto Him." Another example in support of this interpretation is this poetic verse: "Ka mithl al shams idh bazaghat bi hā nuhzā wa mi'tāru, where the word mithl is added in the same way."

Ibn Abī Dāwūd narrates this riwāyah in different versions, but objects to them all and states that it is written bi mithl mā āmantum bi hi in Muṣḥaf al Imām and all the maṣāḥif of the cities, and that it is accepted in the language of the Arabs. It is impossible, he says, that the people of the cities and the Companions should have agreed on an error, particularly in the Qur'an and the practice of prayers. He continues that it is right and accepted in the speech of the Arabs to say to a person who meets you in a manner of which you disapprove, "Ayustaqbalu mithlī bi hādhā?" ("Does someone like me get treated like this?") He quotes in support, laysa ka mithlihi shay'un (42:11), which means laysa ka mithli Rabbī shay'un, and the expressions lā yuqālu lī wa lā li mithlī and lā yuqālu li akhīka wa lā li mithli akhīka, in which these expressions mean "myself." 116

In conclusion, the report attributed to Ibn 'Abbās, like many others that contradict the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif, is no more than an isolated report (khabar āḥād) in opposition to successive (mutawātir) readings, which are accepted by the consensus of the Qurrā' on the gounds of their authenticity in transmission, orthography of the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif, and accordance with the Arabic language.

Ibn al Jazarī states that the readings may differ in various meanings according to the revelation of the Qur'an in seven *ahruf*. These variations in meaning do not contradict one another, because it is impossible that contradiction could be found in Qur'an 4:82, which states: "Do they not consider the Qur'an (with care)? Had it been from other than God, they would surely have found therein much discrepancy." "17

Goldziher thinks that the Qur'an includes examples of contradiction and that 30:2-4 is one example to support his theory. Here he argues that the two readings ghalabat . . . sayughlabūna and ghulibat . . . sayaghlibūna contradict each other, because the victorious according to the former reading are the defeated according to the latter reading. He main-

^{115.} Muqaddimatān, 116.

^{116.} Kitāb al Maṣāḥif, 76-77.

^{117.} Nashr, 1:48.

tains that most of the *Qurrā'* read in accordance with the former reading, ¹¹⁸ and that the Muslim scholars regarded the victory of the Greeks in 625 A.D. as a miracle of the Prophet, because the event took place according to his prophecy (although according to Goldziher it indicates no more than a hope). ¹¹⁹

In fact, however, the former reading is attributed only to certain Companions ('Alī, Abū Sa'īd al Khudrī, Ibn 'Abbās, and Ibn 'Umar) and Followers (Mu'āwiyah Ibn Qurrah and al Ḥasan). ¹²⁰ It is not accepted by the consensus of scholars and thus is regarded as *shādhdh*. The only authentic reading accepted by the 'āmmah and regarded as *mutawātir* is the latter reading. ¹²¹

The former reading, although regarded as *shādhdh*, does not in fact contradict the common reading in its meaning if the historical accounts are studied carefully, or, as al Alūsī puts it, if it is permissible for two readings to differ from each other in regard to their meaning (provided they do not contradict one another, and there is no contradiction in a group of people being victorious and defeated at two different times).¹²² Thus, around the year 615 A.D., the Byzantine Empire was defeated by Persia while Persia was defeated later by the Byzantines around the year 622 A.D., which confirms the common reading:

The Roman Empire has been defeated in a land close by; but they (even) after (this) defeat of theirs will soon be victorious—within a few years. With God is the decision in the past and the future: on the day shall the believers rejoice with the help of God. He helps whom He will and He is exalted in Might, Most Merciful.

In regard to the other *shādhdh* reading, we find in its support that the Romans, after their victory in Syria, were defeated by the Muslims in Jordan in 8 A.H. in the battle known as *Ghazwat Mu'tah*, which was followed by the battle of Yarmūk in 14 A.H.¹²³

Finally, the prophecy of these Qur'anic verses is accepted by Muslims as a miracle in their *mutawātir* reading, irrespective of Goldziher's interpretation. In this connection, al Zamakhsharī asserts that this verse is one of the greatest miracles that bears witness to the trueness of the prophecy of the Prophet and to the fact that the Qur'an is revealed from

^{118.} Al Madhāhib al Islāmiyyah, 18; c.f. Madhāhib al Tafsīr al Islāmī, 29-31.

^{119.} Ibid.

^{120.} Al Bahr al Muhit, 7:161; Qurtubi, 14:4; al Alūsi, Rūh al Ma'āni, 21:17.

^{121.} Al Bahr al Muhīt, 7:161.

^{122.} Al Alūsī, Rūḥ al Ma'ānī, 21:17.

^{123.} Ibid.; Ḥammūdah, Al Qirā'āt wa al Lahajāt, 198.

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God, because it relates knowledge of the unseen, which is not known except to God.¹²⁴

The 'Uthmānic Maṣāḥif and the Problem of Grammatical or Orthographical Errors

It is reported that when the *maṣāḥif* were compiled and brought before 'Uthmān to look through, he found *laḥn* in certain *aḥruf* but told the committee of the *maṣāḥif* to leave them as they were, on the grounds that the Arabs would read them soundly.¹²⁵ According to another version, he added that if the scribe was from Thaqīf and the reciter from Hudhayl, there would not be any *laḥn*.¹²⁶

However, al Dānī states that this report is groundless and not acceptable for the following reasons: first its chain is weak, being *mursal*, and its context (*matn*) is *mudṭarib* (weak). Second, it seems impossible that 'Uthmān, who, with the agreement of the Companions, compiled the *maṣāḥif* in order to unite the Muslims and end the dispute among them, would have left any *laḥn* or error in the *maṣāḥif* to be corrected by those who came after him.¹²⁷

Finally, al Dānī argues that if the report is supposed to be authentic, the word laḥn means the recitation rather than the orthography, because many words, if read according to their orthography in the maṣāḥif, would have a different meaning; for example من نبائ الرسلين, الأاوضعوا, الأاذبحنه add من نبائ الرسلين. 'Uthmān may thus have meant this latter kind, which the Arabs would read soundly, since the Qur'an had been revealed in their language. 128

Al Dānī goes on to report that when 'Ā'ishah was asked about this lahn, she replied that the scribes had erred $(akhha'\bar{u})$. The passages that she cited as including mistakes are the following:

- 1. 20:63 in hadhāni la sāḥirāni
- 2. 4:162 wa al muqīmīna al şalāta wa al mūtūna al zakāta
- 3. 5:72 inna al ladhīna āmanū wa al ladhīna hādū wa al ṣābi'ūna¹²⁹

Al Dānī argues that 'Ā'ishah considered these readings not to be the most fluent and regarded her own *ikhtiyār* as the best, on the grounds that she could not have used the word *akhṭa'ū* literally, since the scribes had

^{124.} Al Zamakhshari, Al Kashshāf, 3:467.

^{125.} Al Dăni, Al Muqni, 124.

^{126.} Ibid., 125.

^{127,} Al Mugni, 124.

^{128.} Ibid., 124-25.

^{129.} Ibid., 126-28; Al Tabari, Tafsir, 9:395; Muqaddimatan, 104-5.

written in this way with the consensus of the Companions. In support of his argument, Al Dāmī quotes certain scholars as having interpreted 'Ā'ishah's statement as meaning that the scribes made mistakes in choosing the best from among the seven aḥruf. According to them, laḥn means recitation or lughah, as in the statement of 'Umar: "Ubayy aqra'unā wa innā la nada'u ba'da lahnihi" (i.e., qirā'atihi—his recitation). 130

The author of $Kit\bar{a}b$ al $Mab\bar{a}n\bar{i}^{131}$ attributes to certain scholars the view that 'A'ishah objected to these readings because they did not correspond with the Qurayshī dialect, although they are sound according to the other dialects of the Arabs.¹³²

In addition, it is said that there are other orthographical errors in the maṣāḥif as follows:

- 1. 2:177 wa al mūfūna bi 'abdihim idhā 'āhādu wa al ṣābirīna
- 2. 63:10 fa aşşaddaqa wa akun min al şāliḥīn
- 3. 21:3 wa asarrū al najwā al ladhīna zalamū¹³³

However, al Tabari supports the authenticity of all the examples mentioned above according to various Arab dialects. 134 He states that if they had been written wrongly in the 'Uthmanic masahif, we would have found all earlier masahif disagreeing with the 'Uthmanic masahif. whereas Ubayy is reported as having agreed in his reading and mushaf with the 'Uthmanic masahif. For example, wa al muqimina al salata wa al mūtūna al zakāta (4:162) is found in the mushaf of Ubayy in the same way as in the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif. Al Ṭabarī concludes that the agreement of the 'Uthmanic masahif with that of Ubayy indicates that what is in our masahif today is sound and correct, and that if in fact there had been mistakes in the orthography of the 'Uthmānic masāhif. the Companions would not have taught their Followers except in the correct manner. Finally, he states that the transmission by the Muslims of these readings, in accordance with the orthography as found in the 'Uthmanic masahif, is the strongest evidence of their correctness and soundness. He adds that this has nothing to do with the scribes and one should not attribute to them any mistake in writing.135

The scribes of the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif are reported to have differed as to whether the word luq = luq = 1 should be written with final $t\bar{a}$ ' or $h\bar{a}$ '. 'Uthmān

^{130.} Al Mugni, 127-28.

^{131.} Included in Mugaddimatān, edited by A. Jeffery (Cairo: 1954).

^{132.} Ibid., 115.

^{133.} Ibid., 104.

^{134.} Al Tabari, Tafsīr, 3:352-54, 9:394-97.

^{135.} Ibid., 9:397-98.

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is said to have commanded them to write it with final $t\bar{a}'$, according to the Qurayshī dialect, on the grounds that the Quran has been revealed in their dialect. ¹³⁶

Since the scribes consulted 'Uthman whenever they differed in writing certain words and he would correct them, it is unlikely that he found cases of *lahn* in the *ahruf* of the Qur'an and left them to the people to correct in their readings. If he had told the scribes to leave alleged *lahn* to be corrected by the Arabs, it is reasonable to suppose that he would have done the same thing with the word

Furthermore, the author of *Kitāb al Mabānī*¹³⁷ studies all examples mentioned above and substantiates their acceptability as good Arabic according to various Arab dialects, quoting in support of each example many lines of ancient Arab poetry.¹³⁸

As to the authenticity of these examples from the linguistic point of view, the views of the commentators are discussed in detail below:

1. Qur'an 20:63: Qālū inna hādhāni la sāhirāni

Abū 'Ubaydah is reported as having stated about the *muṣḥaf* of 'Uthmān concerning ان هذن لسحرن (20:63) that it was with the omission of *alif*, being *marfū*, and that the scribes added yā' in cases of *naṣb* and *khafḍ*. This Qur'anic passage is read in variant accepted readings that we will discuss with their different *i'rāb* and interpretation as follows:

- a. In hādhāni la sāḥirāni being attributed to Ḥafṣ, the rāwī of 'Āṣim.
- b. In hādhāni la sāḥirānni being attributed to Ibn Kathīr. 140 Both of these readings read it as in.

In both of these cases hādhāni is mubtada' and its khabar is la sāḥir-āni or la sāḥirānni.

c. Inna hādhāni la sāḥirāni, which is read by 'āmmah of the Qurrā'. It is attributed to Nāfi', Ibn 'Āmir, Shu'bah (another Rāwī of Ḥafṣ), Ḥamzah, al Kisā'ī, Abū Ja'far, Yaq'ūb, and Khalaf. 141

The grammarians suggested various kinds of $i^t r \bar{a} b$ and interpretations for this reading as follows:

1. It is damīr al sha'n with the -hu omitted and is to be understood as

^{136.} Bukhārī, 6:479.

^{137.} Muqaddimatān, edited by A. Jeffery (Cairo; 1954).

^{138.} Ibid., 104-16.

^{139.} Al Bahr al Muhīt, 6:255.

^{140.} Ibid.: Nashr, 2:320-21.

^{141.} Nashr, 2:321.

meaning innahu hādhāni. This view is regarded as weak. In support of this interpretation, 'Abd Allāh Ibn al Zubayr is reported as having said "Inna wa rākibahā" to a poet who said to him, "La'ana Allāhu nāqatan ḥamalatnī ilayka." 142

- Inna in this context is said to mean na'am.¹⁴³ It is also said that hadhāni is mubtada' and its khabar is lā sāḥirani (as attributed to al Mubarrid, Ismā'il Ibn Ishāq, and Abū al Ḥasan al Akhfash al Ṣaghūr).
- 3. Abū Ḥayyān cites the following Arabs as using the dual of this word with alif in all cases: Kinānah, Banū al Ḥārith Ibn Ka'b, Khath'am, Zabūd and the people of his region, Banū al Anbār, Banū Hajīm, Murād, and 'Udhrah. Abū Ḥayyān considers this the best explanation of this reading.¹⁴⁴

Al Zamakhsharī similarly states that certain Arabs treat the alif of the dual as alif maqṣūrah (i.e., invariable). The author of Muqaddimat Kitāb al Mabānī claims that Quraysh adopted this form from Banū al Ḥārith. He states that the Quraysh say akramtu al rajulāni, rakibtu al farasāni, and naṣartu ilā al 'abdāni. He reports al Farrā' as having narrated on the authority of a man belonging to al Azd on the authority of certain people of Banū al Ḥārith that they recited the saying of al Mutalammis as follows: Fa aṭraqa iṭraqa al shujā'i wa law ra'ā / masāghan linābāhu al shujā' laṣammamā, and that Banū al Ḥārith say hādhā khaṭṭu yadā akhū a'rifuhū. He also attributes to them the poetic verse Inna abāhā wa abā abāhā qad balaghā fi al majdi ghayatāhā. 147

Finally Abū 'Amr Ibn al 'Alā' is reported as having read *inna hādhayni* la sāḥirāni. However, Abū Ḥayyān reports al Zajjāj as having objected to this reading on the grounds that it did not correspond with the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif.' 148

2. Qur'an 4:162: Wa al muqimina al salāta wa al mūtūna al zakāta.

The word *al muqīmīn* is written and read with *naṣb* being the *naṣb* of praise while, according to Sībawayh, *al muqīmīn* is in *khafḍ*, being in opposition to the word *minhum*. ¹⁴⁹ Al Zamakhsharī states that no attention should be paid to the claim that an orthographical error appears, here or elsewhere. This claim, he says, is made only by those who do not know the various

^{142.} Muqaddimatān, 111.

^{143.} Al Baḥr al Muḥīţ, 6:255.

^{144.} Ibid.

^{145.} Al Kashshāf, 3:72.

^{146.} Included in Mugaddimatān.

^{147.} Ibid., 109.

^{148.} Al Bahr al Muhīt, 6:255.

^{149.} Al Kashshāf, 1:590.

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ways the Arabs use their language. He argues that the *salaf*, who were known for their wide knowledge, their virtues, and their vigorous support of Islam, could not possibly have left any defect in the *muṣḥaf* to be corrected by the following generation.¹⁵⁰

3. Qur'an 5:69: Inna al ladhīna āmanū wa al ladhīna hādū wa al Sabi'ūna wa al Nasārā.

The word al ṣābi'ūna is written and read with raf' being a mubtada' whose khabar is omitted, which may be understood as meaning inna al ladhīna āmanū wa al ladhīna hādū wa al Naṣārā ḥukmuhum kadhā wa al Sābi'ūna kadhālika.

In support, al Zamakhsharī cites Sībawayh as having quoted the following example: wa illā fa 'iamū annā wa antum bughātun mā baqīna fi shiqāqi meaning fa 'iamū annā bughātun wa antum kadhālika.¹⁵¹

4. Qur'an 2:177: Wa al mūfūna bi 'ahdihim idhā 'āhadū wa al ṣābirīna.

The word al şābirīn is read with naṣb, as it is written in the maṣāḥif as being regarded as a naṣb of distinction and praise. ¹⁵² Al Ṭabarī states that this form is found in the Arabic language and quotes in support certain lines. ¹⁵³

5. Qur'an 62:10: Fa aşşaddaqa wa akun min al şāliḥīn.

The word akun is read with jazm, as it is written in the maṣāḥif as being dependent on the phrase law lā akhkhartanī, as though the sentence were In akhkhartanī aṣṣaddaq wa akun . . . 154

6. Qur'an 21:3: Wa asarrū al najwā al ladhīna zalamū

Abū Ḥayyān states that all the various kinds of *i'rāb*, *raf'*, *naṣb*, and *khafd* are suggested for *al ladhīna zalamū* in 21:3. They are as follows:

First, raf', with various interpretations:

- a. It is badal (permutative) of the noun of $asarr\bar{u}$.
- b. It is the agent $(f\bar{a}'il)$ belonging to the verb zalamu, while wa asarr \bar{u} indicates only the plural.

^{150.} Ibid.

^{151.} Ibid., 660-61.

^{152.} Ibid., 220.

^{153.} Al Tabari, Tafsīr, 3:352-53.

^{154.} Al Kashshāf, 4:544.

According to this interpretation it would be an example of *lughat akalūnī al barāghīth*. This latter interpretation is regarded by certain scholars as being *lughah shādhdhah*. However, according to others it is *lughah ḥasanah*, being attributed to *lughat Azd Shanū'ah*. This is supported by a similar passage in 5:71, *thumma 'amū wa ṣammū kathīrun minhum*, and a poetic verse attributed to a poet among the Azd Shanū'ah: *Yalūmūnani fī'shtirā'i al nakhīli ahlī wakulluhumū alwamu*.

- c. According to certain other grammarians, al ladhīna is mubtada' and its khabar is wa asarrū al najwā.
- d. Al ladhīna is fā'il and its fī'l is omitted, being understood from the passage. It may be assumed to be, for example, yaqūlu or asarrahā.
- e. According to certain other grammarians, al ladhīna is khabar and its mubtada', which is hum, is omitted.

Second, it is suggested that the *i'rāb* of al ladhīna is naṣb either to indicate blame or with the word a'nī understood.

Finally, it is suggested that the *i'rāb* of al ladhīna is khafḍ, on the assumption that it is attributed to the word li al nāsi in the first verse, or that it is badal of this word.

However, Abū Ḥayyān regards this as unlikely (ab'ad al aqwāl), 155 while al Zamakhsharī does not mention it at all. 156

The text of the Qur'an allows variant readings according to the revelation of the Qur'an in seven *ahruf*. Also, the language of the Qur'an is the common literary language of the Arabs and includes various Arab dialects. Therefore, the philologists and the grammarians should not have disputed any reading corresponding with one of the Arab dialects. In fact, many of them are reported as having objected to certain authentic readings only because they do not correspond with the most fluent Arabic or they considered them strange, wrong, or of uncommon usage.

The grammatical schools of Başrah and Kūfah disagreed on the authenticity and acceptability of certain readings only because they did not correspond with their analogies or to their criteria of fluency for the various Arab dialects.¹⁵⁷

The scholars of the Kūfan school are, in fact, said to have respected and accepted the *qirā'āt* more than those of the Baṣran school, although in a few cases the Kūfans did object to certain accepted readings. In this con-

^{155.} Al Bahr al Muhīt, 6:296-97.

^{156.} Al Kashshāf, 3:102.

^{157.} Madrasat al Kûfah, 337.

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nection, we refer to a Kūfan grammarian, al Kisā'ī, who is at the same time a Qāri'. He is reported to have objected to the reading of the 'āmmah in 58:11, qad sami'a with the izhār of dāl in qad, preferring his own ikhtiyār with idghām (i.e., qas-sami'a). In addition, al Farrā' is reported as having refuted the reading of Ibn 'Āmir in 6:137. 199

The scholars of the Başran school are known to have objected to certain linguistic features in the readings even if they originated with the seven highly esteemed canonical readers listed by of Ibn Mujāhid. To cite an example, Abū al Tayyib al Lughawī denied the scholarship of the Kūfan Qurrā' and grammarians. He was supported by his student al Mubarrid, who vehemently rejected any reading that did not correspond with his Başran analogy. For example, he objected to the reading of Ḥamzah in 4:1, wa attaqū Allāha al ladhī tasā'alūna bi hī wa al arhāmi with khafḍ in al arhāmi, while the majority read it with naṣb. Al Qurtubī reports al Mubarrid as having said that if he had heard any imām reading thus, according to the reading of Ḥamzah, he would have certainly left him and gone away.

However, both ways of reading are accepted among the *Qurrā'*, and the reading of Hamzah with *khafḍ* is accepted as fluent Arabic. 165

In fact, the philologists and grammarians agree in theory that the $Qurr\ddot{a}$ follow the sunnah in their $ikhtiy\ddot{a}r$ and that their readings correspond with the orthography of the 'Uthmānic $max\ddot{a}hif$ and agree with the Arabic language. In this respect, Ibn Jinrū supports certain readings, although he sometimes cannot find any linguistical evidence in their support. He accepts them on the grounds that the $Q\ddot{a}ri$ ' must have heard it and that he could not have read freely without relying on the $riw\ddot{a}yah$. ¹⁶⁶

However, the philologists and grammarians failed to apply their theory in practice consistently. This includes Ibn Jinnī, who, following his Basran school, objects to certain authentic readings.¹⁶⁷

In fact, we find this phenomenon even among certain *Qurrā'* who are reported to have objected to certain accepted readings. This includes Abū 'Ubayd and al Zajjāj, who are reported to have objected to the reading in 14:22 of wa mā antum bi muṣrikhiyyi with khafḍ as opposed to bi

^{158.} Al Bahr al Muhit, 8:232.

^{159.} Ma'ānī al Qur'ān, 1:357-58; see pp. 170-171 of this study.

^{160.} Marātib al Nahwiyyīn, 26.

^{161. &#}x27;Udaymah, ed., int., Al Muqtadab, 1:111.

^{162.} Al Kāmil. 3:39.

^{163.} Al Bahr al Muhīt, 3:157.

^{164.} Tafsīr, 5:2.

^{165.} Al Baḥr al Muḥūt, 3:157. For more information, see p. 164-165 of this book.

^{166.} Al Muhtasib, 1:85-86, 2:27, 252.

^{167.} Ibid., 1:240-43; Al Khasā'is, 1:72-73.

muṣrikhiyya. 168 Abū 'Amr ibn al 'Alā' is also reported as having objected to the reading of Ḥamzah in 18:44 of hunālika al wilāyatu and mālakum min wilāyatihim (8:72) as opposed to the commoner al walāyatu and walāyatihim, regarding the former as laḥn. 169 Likewise, Hārūn al A'war is reported as having objected to the reading of Ibn 'Āmir in 19:42 of yā-abata which, according to him, is lahn, as opposed to yā abati. 170

Let us look at certain examples in which grammarians objected to certain accepted readings among the seven distinguished readings, and then examine them and substantiate their authenticity and acceptability in the Arabic language with references to their origins among the various Arabic dialects.

In 14:22, the common reading is wa mā antum bimuṣrikhiyya with naṣb of the final yā', while Ḥamzah, one of the seven distinguished Qurrā', reads bi musrikhiyyi. Al Zamakhshaā considers this latter reading weak.¹⁷¹

Abū Hayyān reports certain philologists and grammarians as having rejected this latter reading, but he states that the reading is authentic and sound Arabic, though rare, being attributed to the dialect of the Banū Yarbū'. He quotes Qutrub and certain other authorities in support of his argument.¹⁷²

In 4:1, the common reading is wa attaqū Allāha al ladhī tasa'alūna bi hi wa al arḥāma, while it is read by Ḥamzah, being attributed also to al Nakha'ī, Qatādah, and al A'mash, as arhāmi.¹⁷³ Certain grammarians object to this latter reading on the grounds that it is not sound Arabic, and leading Baṣran grammarians do not accept this form.¹⁷⁴ Abū Ḥayyān, however, supports this reading because of its authenticity and the fluency of its Arabic, as supported by various examples in Arabic prose and poetry. He states that the Kūfan school, which accepts and supports this form, is correct and that the Baṣrans are wrong in objecting to it.¹⁷⁵

In addition, Abū Ḥayyān studies the transmission of the latter reading. He asserts that it is a successive reading and has been received from the Prophet by way of tawātur, and that Ḥamzah has not read any ḥarf in the Qur'an except with āthār. He concludes that it is not necessary that the Arabic language follow either the Baṣran school or any other, for

^{168.} Al Bahr al Muhit, 5:419.

^{169.} Nashr, 2:277; Al Bahr al Muhīt, 6:130.

^{170.} Al Bahr al Muhit, 6:193.

^{171.} Al Kashshāf, 2:551.

^{172.} Al Bahr al Muḥīţ, 5:420.

^{173.} Ibid., 3:157.

^{174.} Ibid.; Al Kashshāf, 1:462; al Ţabarī, Tafsīr, 3:519-20; Al Baḥr al Muḥīţ, 3:158.

^{175,} Al Bahr al Muhīt, 3:158-59.

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there are many parts of Arabic transmitted only by the Kūfans and many other parts transmitted only by the Başrans.¹⁷⁶

Ibn al Jazarī states that Ḥamzah was the chief Qāri' of Kūfah, after 'Āsim and al A'mash, and that he was reliable; knowledgeable in the Qur'an, the Arabic language, and other fields of Islamic studies; and devout.¹⁷⁷ He elsewhere states that Ḥamzah has not read a single harf except with āthār.¹⁷⁸

However, Ibn al Munayyir refutes al Zamakhshañ's allegation and supports the reading of Ibn 'Āmir on the grounds that it has been transmitted with tawātur. He rejects al Zamakhshañ's idea that the Qurrā' of the seven readings read optionally or simply followed the orthography of the maṣāḥif without relying on riwāyah. 181

Abū Hayyān discusses and supports the reading of Ibn 'Āmir and says that certain grammarians accept this form in Arabic, although the majority of the Baṣran school reject it (except in the case of poetic license). He asserts that Ibn 'Āmir's reading is correct on the grounds that it has been transmitted in the manner of tawātur and is attributed to a fluent Arab, Ibn 'Āmir (who received it from 'Uthmān before the appearance of laḥn in the tongue of the Arabs), and that many verses of poetry support this form. 182

Ibn al Jazarī refers to Ibn 'Āmir as a great *Imām*, a respected Follower, and a prominent scholar who led prayers in the Umayyad Mosque in Damascus during the reign of 'Umar Ibn 'Abd al 'Azīz . Ibn 'Āmir was

^{176.} Ibid., 3:159.

^{177.} Nashr. 1:166.

^{178.} Ghayāt al Nihāyah, 1:263.

^{179.} Al Bahr al Muhīt, 4:229.

^{180.} Al Kashshāf, 2:70.

^{181.} Al Intisāf, with al Kashshāf, 2:69.

^{182.} Al Bahr al Muhīt, 4:229.

also the chief $Q\bar{a}q\bar{t}$ and $Q\bar{a}ri'$, and his reading is accepted with consensus of the salaf.¹⁸³

Moreover, Ibn Ḥajar al 'Asqalānī points out that the i'rāb of the hadith fa hal antum tārikū li aṣḥābī agrees with that of the reading of Ibn 'Āmir, since in the latter passage the muḍāf and the muḍāf ilayhi are separated by a prepositional phrase, while in the former they are separated by the direct object.¹⁸⁴

Arabic grammar perhaps should have been based on all Arabic literature in its various dialects, and the Qur'anic readings should have been accepted and used in the construction of Arabic grammar. However, the grammarians opted for the opposite when they rejected certain *qirā'āt* because they differed from their analogy or the common rule.

Al Rāzī objects to this approach and states that often the grammarians have been uncertain as to how to support the fluency and acceptability of some Qur'anic words. He adds that they are happy to find an unknown poetic line. He comments that this practice surprises him and that, whereas they regard this unknown poetic line as an indication of the correctness of the Qur'anic words, the right method would have been the opposite (i.e., to authenticate the words of the poetic lines on the grounds that they are found in the Qur'an). ¹⁸⁵

The grammarians, in fact, could not deal with all the constructions found in the Qur'an and its readings. 'Udaymah finds examples of their objecting to certain kinds of *i'rāb*, although they are found in the Qur'an. ¹⁸⁶ He adds that they objected to any reading if it did not correspond with their analogy, if they could not find substantiation for it according to their knowledge, and if it did not agree with what is in common usage, or because they misunderstood certain *qirā'āt* (although they are successive readings and are in accordance with their analogy). ¹⁸⁷

In conclusion, we may say that *ikhtiyār* was not left to individual choice, but depended upon the three conditions for acceptability discussed above. It was in no way dependent upon the orthography of the *maṣāḥif* or related to the fact that they were undotted and unvocalized. And although accepted readings may differ in meaning, they do not contradict one another. Since the Qur'an was revealed in seven *aḥruf*, all of them are good Arabic, none should be rejected on grammatical grounds. In practice some grammarians, particularly those of Baṣrah, may have rejected certain read-

^{183.} Nashr, 1:114.

^{184.} Fath al Bārī, 7:25f.

^{185.} Al Răzī, Mafātīh al Ghayb, 3:193.

^{186. &#}x27;Udaymah, Dirāsāt li Uslūb al Qur'ān al Karīm, 1:5-13.

^{187.} Ibid., 22-25.

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ings on the grounds of their analogy. Nevertheless, these readings are valid on the basis of other dialects, and other grammarians have accepted them.



Conclusion



CONCLUSION

This conclusion briefly reviews the main issues discussed in the preceeding seven chapters.

First, the Qur'an has been revealed in seven ahruf. The differences among the Companions apparently arose after the Hijrah to Madinah, when the number of Muslims from various tribes increased, and the ahruf were intended to facilitate the reading of the Qur'an among them.

The ahādīth that substantiate the revelation of the Qur'an in seven ahruf are regarded as sound and successive (mutawātir).

The term seven ahruf means seven linguistical variations reflecting various Arab dialects used in reciting the Qur'an.

To aid the memories of the Companions, the Prophet would have scribes write down what was revealed to him in verses or portions on materials available at the time. (Many of the Companions knew by heart all or parts of the Qur'an; some even had their own codices.) The Qur'an was thus preserved in the hearts of the *Qurrā'* as well as in book form.

The first development was that Abū Bakr gathered the Qur'an from its suḥuf and different materials, as it had been transmitted from the Prophet, and compiled them in the muṣḥaf. The word muṣḥaf denotes the entire text of the Qur'an (this title was given to the Qur'an during the lifetime of the Prophet). It is an ancient Arabic word used in pre-Islamic poetry.

The next step was the compilation of 'Uthmān, who copied maṣāḥif from the muṣḥaf of Abū Bakr and distributed them to the metropolitan cities accompanied by distinguished Qurrā' to teach the people accordingly. The purpose was to unite them and end disputes among the people in the encampments, the amṣār, and in Madīnah itself. Hence, 'Uthmān destroyed the personal codices. The arrangement of the surahs as well as the verses in the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif are shown by many sound reports to be based on the revelation because they were found in the original and supported by their transmission from the Prophet.

The problem of *naksh* is studied along with the two episodes of the *gharānīq* and the scribe who is said to have altered the *fawāṣil* (the verse endings of the Qur'an). As a result, the completeness and trustworthiness of the Qur'an has been demonstrated because nothing is missing nor were any parts read and abrogated by *naskh al tilāwah* either with or without *hukm*.

As to the relation between the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif and the seven aḥruf, the most acceptable two opinions among the scholars are that the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif accommodate either all or some of the aḥruf, which correspond with the orthography of the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif (including what is transmitted by tawātur but not āḥād readings attributed to certain personal codices and transmitted to us in unauthentic chains). The maṣāḥif were recorded in one ḥarf with the permission to recite in seven ahruf.

The additional interpolations attributed to the personal codices are found to be their own explanations and interpretations. They all are generally isolated reports (akhbār āḥād), dubious, or rejected.

The accounts alleging that Ubayy added to his mushaf the du'ā' al qunūt as one or two surahs and that Ibn Mas'ūd denied al Fātiḥah and al Mu'awwidhatayn are to be regarded as unauthentic.

The 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif remained unchanged, without vocalization or dottings, for they used to be read soundly according to the riwāyah and teaching of the Qurrā'. The former was introduced by Abū al Aswad al Du'alī as a result of the appearance of laḥn, because of the overwhelming numbers of non-Arabs in Iraq. The second was done by the students of Abū al Aswad at the request of al Ḥajjāj during the reign of 'Abd al Malik Ibn Marwān.

The signs of vocalization and dottings were further developed with the adoption of the *ḥarakāt* of al Khalīl Ibn Aḥmad and have remained unchanged since then. What can be attributed to al Ḥajjāj is no more than adding *naqt al i'jām* to the 'Uthmānic *maṣāḥif*. Thus, he introduced no alteration or recension of the *maṣāḥif*, and the printed *maṣāḥif* of the present day represent the received text of the Qur'an without alteration.

The language in which the Qur'an has been revealed is studied in ancient as well as in modern linguistical sources to investigate the views of the scholars. The text of the Qur'an is found to reflect the influence of various dialects of the Arabs. The views of the scholars who interpret the seven ahruf as seven dialects also are examined. Some scholars held that they belong entirely to Quraysh or to the most fluent dialects of all the Arabs, and they differed according to their criteria for fluency. An attempt

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is made to distinguish between *lughah* and *lahjah* in ancient sources and modern studies.

The language of the Qur'an is concluded to represent the common spoken literary language of the Arabs ,which is based on all their dialects with a predominance of Qurayshī features.

The origin of qirā'āt is investigated, and it is concluded that they date back to the teaching of the Prophet, for we find that every Companion, when he differed in readings with someone, would say that the Prophet had taught him this way. The following generation taught the Qur'an accordingly. Accepted readings are found to correspond with certain conditions, while readings that do not correspond with them (or any one of them) are regarded as shādhdh (dubious) or completely unaccepted. The development of these conditions is studied. The theory of reading the Qur'an in accordance with the meaning is shown to be groundless; rather the Qurrā' would teach their students according to the conditions governing them and as they received the qirā'ah from the Companions who were taught it from the Prophet (bearing in mind the fact that the Companions, whenever they differed in reading, would refer their reading to the Prophet or come to him to arbitrate between them).

The first compilers of qirā'āt would compile an unspecified number of qirā'āt. Ibn Mujāhid was the first to introduce the seven readings of the seven Qurrā' of the distinguished Amṣār, regarding the other readings as shādhdh. In choosing this specific number, although it corresponded to the number of aḥruf, he never intended to confuse the seven aḥruf with his seven readings.

The seven readings compiled by Ibn Mujāhid were adopted in the amṣār and dominated the circles of the Qurrā', although another three readings in addition to Ibn Mujāhid's al Sab'ah were supported and strongly argued to have the same position as his seven. Many books have been written on the subject.

Ikhtiyār, or selection, in reading is considered next. The Qurrā' do not have free hand in this, because any reading should be subject to correspondence with riwāyah, the orthography of the maṣāḥif, and the Arabic language. The emphasis is on substantiating the fact that the 'Uthmānic maṣāḥif include no grammatical or orthographical errors. The Qurrā', when they selected certain readings, supported their choice by mentioning the reasons behind their preference for a certain ikhtiyār. But they did not reject other accepted readings.

Although the philologists and grammarians agreed theoretically that any reading agreeing with the conditions for accepted readings should not be objected to, in practice they disagreed on the degree of fluency required. Some of them objected to certain authentic and highly esteemed readings. This book has studied examples and concluded that they are accepted readings on the grounds of their sound transmission, fluency, and correspondence with various Arab dialects.

Finally, although the sound readings may differ in meaning, they do not contradict each other. The orthography of the *maṣāḥif* preserves the authentic readings, which are subject to the *riwāyah*, and the orthography itself does not initiate or create any readings.



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